JOURNAL OF BROADCASTING

SUMMER 1961

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The JOURNAL OF BROADCASTING welcomes the submission of articles and reviews from all sources. Attention is called to the suggestions for the preparation of manuscripts appearing on the last two pages of Volume V, Number 1.

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Fragmentation

A LOT of the all-too-public troubles currently plaguing the broadcasting industry, many of the often-unrecognized problems in professional broadcasting education, and much of the reason why communication is still not a science can be traced to the phenomena of fragmentation of the subject and compartmentalization of the pieces.

People in the industry are largely too busy being managers, producers, actors, salesmen, disc jockeys, engineers and accountants to be broadcasters. The teachers are often too busy teaching their specialties of speech, drama, journalism, engineering, etc. to offer the generalist student of *broadcasting* (or communication) what he needs of the disciplines mentioned plus art, law, political science, psychology, and the other social sciences.

Without a central focus, without thought-out knowledge of the essence of broadcasting, it is no wonder that the business and creative sides of the industry have drawn far apart, and the teacher of broadcasting who feels at home in all sides is rare indeed. The aspects of broadcasting (as a business, a public service, an institution protected by the First Amendment and as an art form) should first be clearly distinguished, examined and studied, then synthesized into a consistent, coherent whole in the minds of broadcasters, teachers, students, the public and the Congress. Without this process there is bound to be a lack of identification, a process of fragmentation, that cannot help but warp what we hope is at least the promise of a *profession* of broadcasting.

When he has broken down the walls around the compartments of knowledge each individual will be able to establish his own valid philosophy of broadcasting within our culture. Much of the value of the paired articles by Breitenfeld and Bell in this issue lies in the internal consistency of each of their highly divergent opinions of the relationship of freedom to broadcasting.

We all know of some, but how many broadcasters have read Head's *Broadcasting in America*? For that matter, how many own a personal copy of the *Communications Act*? How many licensees have read the full text of Chairman Minow's "wasteland"

speech? Any professional periodicals except those in their particular field of specialization? How many watch or listen to programs that are not their personal favorites, but are selected by millions of their fellow citizens? How many have discussed the problems they face with people in other departments; with their friends in the academic professions? How many take an interest in broadcasting education? How many plan to read the Schramm, Lyle and Parker *Television in the Lives of Our Children* or Walter Emery's *Broadcasting and Government*? How many take the time to think about the industry of which they and their job are a part, not the whole?

We all know of some, but how many teachers of professional broadcasting can speak the language of the broadcaster? How many understand the technological imperatives of radio transmission? How many read *Broadcasting*, *Television Digest*, *Sponsor*, and the rest of the voluminous trade press with the same avidity they devour either the *Quarterly Journal of Speech* or *Journalism Quarterly*? How many understand enough economic and political science theory to interpret trends and institutions in broadcasting to their students? How many could take over as a d.j. or newscaster with any feeling of confidence in their own competence? How many are truly familiar with the literature? How many think of the broad field of broadcasting (and the even broader field of communications of which broadcasting is a part) rather than the narrow specialization in which they were originally educated?

Why is it that much worthwhile contemplation of the philosophical aspects of broadcasting is lost in the gabble of a cocktail party or bull session, or is only presented in garbled form in the trade press? Why is it that much of the valuable and needed research in broadcasting is done by social psychologists, sociologists, political scientists, psychologists, economists—just about everyone but teachers of broadcasting? Our failures, in school and industry, are not because of lack of ability or availability of research facilities, but because of a lack of focus. It will be necessary for each of us to find a focus before we can have strong confidence as to the direction of broadcasting and our part in it.

Reason and the Absolute

BY FREDERICK BREITENFELD, JR.

The following article, "Reason and the Absolute," was submitted to the JOURNAL *in the hope of arousing interest in an outstanding problem of American broadcasting. It should be read in conjunction with the vigorous reply by Mr. Howard Bell that starts on p. 199. Mr. Breitenfeld's central point is that guarantees of the First Amendment have little relation to current criticisms and actions being directed against broadcasters who possess a technological monopoly (although with economic competition) of a priceless national resource. Mr. Bell holds that freedom of speech guarantees should apply to the communication of ideas, regardless of the technology of the medium; and that flourishing economic competition should dispell fears resulting from technological monopoly.*

Mr. Breitenfeld is a program administrator (in the area of liberal education for adults) at Syracuse University. He received an engineering degree and a Master's degree in Education from Tufts University. He was named a Mass Media Fellow by the Fund for Adult Education in 1959.

• • •

Freedom

CERTAIN words, through excessive popular usage, have come to lose their original meanings. In some cases, words have lost almost *all* meaning, and merely stand for vague and undefined ideas. The word *freedom*, as used to describe the popular concept of the American way, is an example. It is used often, to draw cheers for a platform speaker; it is written often, without thought, into club charters; it is thrown carelessly into songs and poems, because it has evolved to connote that which is "American" and "good." Further, Americans have grown to be almost negative about their "freedoms" in that they are quick to notice what they think is an infringement of their rights, while simultaneously there are communities in which continual interferences with the rights of unpopular religious, political and economic groups take place.[1] In speaking of this negative approach, an authority has stated that "it is misinterpretations such as these which are giving the name 'freedoms' to the most flagrant enslavements of our minds and souls."[2]

Freedom, by definition, is that which is not bound by restrictions. This includes *all* restrictions: physical, governmental and moral. It seems obvious that any form of society would soon destroy itself if its inhabitants were completely unrestricted in all ways, and in order for man to exist in a more civilized manner, he imposes what he calls "law" on himself. At this point his *absolute* freedom is harnessed and checked.

Freedom in its most complete sense, then, is impossible, and this is basic. In sematics, the word is accepted as a relative term which has meaning only in specific contexts.[3] If the citizens of a community are to be restricted in certain ways, the challenge lies in devising laws which allow for as much freedom as possible, while assuring protection for the individual. This very protection is what often slithers into the realm of the unseen, as the community becomes over-zealous in its very beliefs on freedom. ("Freedom is indivisible: we can't abridge the rights and liberties of Communists without undermining the rights and liberties of all."[4])

The authors of the Constitution wrote the following in the First Amendment:

> Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press, or of the right of people peacefully to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

These words are the foundation for the understanding most men have of the "American Philosophy." However, Justice Brandeis reminds us that "though the rights of free speech and assembly are fundamental, they are not in their nature absolute. Their exercise is subject to their restriction . . ."[5]

The limit of these restrictions is the problem our founders were reluctant to define for us. It has been suggested that there are three domains of freedom, and three corresponding degrees of control: in thought, freedom is absolute; in speech it is limited lightly: in action it is limited severely.[6] Yet, in recent years, the Federal Bureau of Investigation has compiled lists of people in this country with certain "opinions"[7] and demagogues have attempted to stifle free though by creating mass hysteria.

This hysteria is easiest to manipulate when the community is indifferent, empty of ideas, and willing to conform blindly, in which case the citizens themselves place their own valued freedoms in the gravest danger. Under the guise of "patriotism" a series of fear stimuli can be hurled at the public, and the response will be mere head-nodding and finger-pointing. It has been shown that the very people who engage in philosophical thought become the targets for these "patriotics" who do not stop short of lies, deception, and chicanery in order to become more powerful. Further, as this power is gained, new ideas and thoughts become more stifled, and at the same time the population sinks deeper into muddy complacency. Now and then a voice is heard which dares to attack the growing force (on the grounds that the very aims of American belief are prostituted) but often it is quickly chocked to a whisper.

There is no absolute freedom; but its restriction must be in the hands of an educated and interested people.

> *The rulers of the state have said that only free men shall be educated; but Reason has said that only educated men shall be free.*
>
> —*Epictetus*

Freedom of Speech

The misinterpretations of the word *freedom* are accentuated and supplemented when carried into the area of freedom of speech. The ideology which advocates such freedom is often forgotten when some ideas are suppressed as "evil" and others are disseminated as "good"

As soon as speech became a tool for man to express his wants, it also served as a medium for the "broadcasting" of his inner feelings. Various emotions were part of these feelings, but more important, the concepts of "right" and "wrong" could be shared, and it became possible to develop systems of logic and philosophy through thought. These concepts were *ideas* and it is the flow of these ideas which must be kept constantly free.

There is no doubt that ideas will clash if they exist freely, and this is the desired phenomenon, since these very collisions provide the social force necessary for a change. If, instead of or after a

conflict, an idea is "understood," it has then found a place among extant ideas, and is "accepted."[8]

The free trade of ideas is the foundation for what has grown to be freedom of speech. John Milton, Thomas Jefferson, and John Stuart Mill advocated such a "market-place of ideas"[9] and this is what must be protected at all costs, even as it is ignored by those "patriots" who use our Flag as a ladder to power.

The "market-place" philosophy has as its selling point the belief that "good" can overcome "evil" in any fair fight; as long as the actual ideas are allowed to flow without restriction, the "right" ideas will be accepted and the "wrong" ideas will be rejected. This was the strength of the original American Idea, as expressed by Jefferson in his First Inaugural Address:

> If there be any among us who wish to dissolve the Union, or to change its republican form, let them stand undisturbed as monuments of the safety with which error of opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it.[10]

Considering the events of recent years, it seems apparent that we must be re-awakened to this principle.

William O. Douglas stated that "there is no free speech in the full meaning of the term unless there is freedom to challenge the very postulates on which the existing regime rests."[11] Again, there was a period recently during which the slightest hint toward a criticism of what was then the "accepted" and "American" way of thinking resulted in name-calling, conflict, and tragedy. This was significant in two ways: not only were the real beliefs of America's founders being twisted pitifully, but also we were shown that Americans are as susceptible to methods reminiscent of Hitler's as any other group. The lesson to be learned was that our freedom of speech must be guarded extremely closely, since the real value of such freedom is not to the minority which wants to talk, but to the majority which does not want to listen.[12] Nations do not lose their vitality because questions are asked, but because they remain unanswered.[13]

The problem of restriction must also apply to freedom of speech, since absolute freedom is imposible. It wasn't until 1917 that such restriction was clearly defined as related to the security of the

country. Charles Schenck, then Secretary of the Socialists, sent pamphlets to draftees in which he advised the young men that their rights included freedom from military service. Schenck insisted that he had the privilege to act as he did, under the First Amendment, and the case was taken to the Supreme Court. There it was shown that freedom of speech is not all inclusive, and Justice Holmes stated:

> The question in every case is whether the words used are used in such circumstances and are of such a nature as to create a clear and present danger that they will bring about the substantive evils that congress has a right to prevent.[14]

This passage has become well known, and the "Clear and Present Danger Test" is now a common phrase in cases of this sort. A year later, Justice Brandeis reminded us that this rule, like other rules of human conduct, can be applied correctly only by exercise of good judment, in which calmness is essential.[15] He also felt, in further defining the original doctrine, that "no danger flowing from speech can be deemed clear and present, unless the incidence of the evil apprehended is so imminent that it may befall before there is opportunity for full discussion."[16] Thus, even though the majority might feel that certain types of statements are steeped in evil, even as related to governmental policy, *that in itself* is not a "clear and present danger."

Freedom of speech cannot be absolute; but its restrictions can be limited by the interest and education of the people.

> *When men can freely communicate their thoughts and their sufferings, real or imaginary, their passions spend themselves in air, like gunpower scattered upon the surface; but pent up by terrors, they work unseen, burst forth in a moment, and destroy everything in their course.*
>
> *—Thomas Erskine (Rex v. Paine, 1792)*

Freedom of Speech in Broadcasting

One of the basic assumptions on which the writers of the First Amendment operated was that every man has the same physical tools with which to communicate with other men. The original concept of free expression includes the fundamentals of freedom and *equality*.

The idea of equality does not exist in broadcasting. The machinery needed for propagation of an electromagnetic signal is complex and expensive, and only a few men can afford it. Further, the number of frequencies in which radio signals can operate is severely limited, and the airwaves themselves can be used by only a few. Morris Ernst has said: "Since technology has not been able to provide a microphone for everybody, it has to be somebody's monopoly: therefore the necessity for censorship is mathematical —some individuals must be allowed to broadcast, while others are not."[17]

In most other countries the airwaves have been removed from the public, and complete governmental control over broadcasting activity is exercised. In America, though, there has been an attempt to combine the democratic imperatives of free enterprise and equality with the obvious *in*equality which is a result of the very nature of broadcasting. There is no reason why the combination of these philosophies cannot be successfully effected if the meanings of freedom and freedom of speech are considered in the proper context. As originally conceived, the doctrine of the First Amendment was aimed at the free flow of ideas, in order for "social conflict to be raised from the plane of violence to the plane of discussion."[18] This is the only meaning of freedom of expression which can be considered in broadcasting.

Broadcasting in the United States is a business: it exists to make a profit. In doing so, its programming must reflect the wish of the broadcaster, which is to present programs which will attract the largest number of consumers for the sponsors' products. Thus, with the vast majority of programs using "popularity" as the measure of success, there is bound to be an over-abundance of particular program types, to the exclusion of others. This lack of programming balance has been one of the most frequently heard complaints about the industry. Since the industry represents a form of monopoly, complaints are potentially important, and they should be handled with speed and care by the broadcasters themselves. If initiative of this sort is not apparent, it is the responsibility of the government to take action.

In 1946 the Federal Communications Commission suggested that programming activity be considered in comparison with pro-

mises made by broadcast licensees on original applications, and that this comparison be used as a guide in granting license renewals. The system seemed adequate, theoretically, since many broadcasters had shown that they were unable to improve programming themselves. The response by the industry to this suggestion was astonishing in its misinterpretation of the law. The grounds on which the broadcasters claimed that programming review could not be used as a condition of license renewal was "freedom of speech." They further insisted that the First Amendment was interpreted by the authors of the Communications Act of 1934 as applicable to broadcasting.[19] This negative approach to freedom of speech neglects the basic inequality of the broadcasting monopoly, and goes far beyond the spirit of the First Amendment. An authority wrote:

> The radio as it now operates is not free, nor is it entitled to the protection of the First Amendment. It is not engaged in the task of enlarging and enriching human communication. It is engaged in making money. The First Amendment does not intend to guarantee men freedom to say what some private interest pays them to say for its own advantage.
>
> Broadcasting is not cultivating qualities of taste, reasoned judgement, integrity, loyalty, and mutual understanding on which the enterprise of self government depends. It corrupts both our morals and our intelligence. How hollow the victories of freedom of speech when principle acceptance is formalistic.[20]

The problem of freedom in broadcasting becomes crucial when the extent of the industry's power is considered. The force of electromagnetic transmission of sight and sound is great enough to affect an entire population's thoughts, attitudes, and even its morals. The control of this force must be demanding and positive, regardless of the source of the control. A power of this sort must be viewed in the same way we look upon nuclear energy. It is not a toy; it is capable of changing dynamically the very world in which we live. Adlai Stevenson has said: "I wonder if today mass manipulation is not a greater danger than economic exploitation; if we are not in greater danger of becoming robots than slaves."[21]

Freedom of speech in broadcasting is far from absolute; it must be protected, but it can only be exercised by responsible broadcasters who serve an educated and interested people.

I don't . . . believe private enterprise is good for America in the degree to which it involves the pursuit of profit without and at the price of intelligence or virtue.

—Charles A. Siepmann
(Testimony before FCC, December 1959)

Footnotes

[1]*To Secure These Rights.* Report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1947, p. 47.

[2]Meiklejohn, Alexander. *Free Speech and its Relation to Self Government.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948, p. 105.

[3]Chase, Stuart. *The Tyranny of Words.* New York: Harcourt Brace and Co., 1938, p. 346.

[4]Ginzburg, Benjamin. *Rededication to Freedom.* New York: Simon and Schuster, 1959, Title, Chapter 2.

[5]Konvitz, Milton R. *Fundamental Liberties of a Free People.* Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1957, p. 277.

[6]Kelly, Alfred H. (Ed.) *Foundations of Freedom in the American Constitution.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1958, p. 6.

[7]Meiklejohn, Alexander. *op. cit.*, p. x.

[8]Hocking, William Ernest. *Freedom of the Press.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947, p. 100.

[9]Jones, Howard Mumford (Ed.), *Primer of Intellectual Freedom.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1949, p. 12.

[10]*The Secure These Rights.* p. 48.

[11]Douglas, William O. *The Right of the People.* New York: Doubleday and Company, 1958, p. 18.

[12]Chafee, Zechariah, Jr. *Free Speech in the United States.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1941, p. ix.

[13]Gellhorn, Walter. *Individual Freedom and Governmental Restraints.* Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1956, p. 71.

[14]Lusk, L. B. "*Present Status of the Clear and Present Danger Test,*" *Kentucky Law Journal* 45:576, Summer 1957, p. 606.

[15]*To Secure These Rights.* p. 49.

[16]Konvitz, Milton R. *op. cit.*, p. 279.

[17]Ernst, Morris L. *The First Freedom.* New York: Macmillan Company, 1946, p. 125.

[18]Hocking, William Ernest. *op. cit.*, p. 101.

[19]Miller, Justin. *Statement on a Bill to Amend the Communications Act*, 1947.

[20]Meiklejohn, Alexander. *op. cit.*, p. 104.

[21]Johnson, Gerald W. *Peril and Promise.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1958, p. 26.

The Relativity of Freedom

BY HOWARD H. BELL

Mr. Bell is Vice President for Industry Affairs of the National Association of Broadcasters and Executive Secretary of the APBE. His education, in Journalism and Law, has been at the University of Missouri and Catholic University of America. The following article was written specifically in answer to that by Mr. Breitenfeld.

. . .

"The trouble about fighting for human freedom is that you have to spend much of your time defending sons-of-bitches; for oppressive laws are always aimed at them originally, and oppression must be stopped in the beginning if it is to be stopped at all."

—H. L. Mencken

ONE of the characteristics of a free society is the opportunity for the expression of differing points of view. Varying interpretations are placed on such values as "representative government," "free enterprise economy," and indeed on the basic concept of "freedom" itself. However, despite the constantly changing patterns and attitudes of society, the temptation to alter fundamental precepts must be resisted.

Mr. Breitenfeld provides us with an interesting analysis of the nature of freedom in present day Western culture. This author does not quarrel with the thesis of Mr. Breitenfeld that freedom is a relative term. It cannot be applied in like manner to all circumstances. Justice Holmes applied a different test of freedom to shouting "Fire!" in a theater than one might expect if the same expression were exclaimed in the sanctity of the home. Therefore, it is really the *application* of freedom which is relative, not the freedom itself.

Our concern in a free society must always be that we do not inadvertently impair freedom *itself* when we are considering its *application*. It is true that there is a need in our culture for the free flow of philosophical thought unhampered by the bonds of

conformity. Like its economic life, Western society's political existence will flourish only in the "market-place of ideas" wherein all points of view of all arguments can be tolerated and examined . . . modified but not eliminated by the necessary application of the "clear and present danger" test. One price we pay for this freedom is the requirement that we endure the arguments and *non sequiturs* of the lunatic fringe. For history has shown us that the lunatic fringe of today may well be the sanity of tomorrow.

Turning to the application of this analysis to the broadcast media, we find the central thrust of Mr. Breitenfeld's argument to be simply this: Since broadcasting is at once a business and a technological monopoly, and since it is not literally free (in the economic sense), it is, therefore, not entitled to the protection of the First Amendment.

It seems to us that the first two statements, if taken alone, simply contradict each other. It is asserted that because broadcasting is a *business* and because it exists to make a *profit*, the broadcasters only desire is to present programs which will attract the largest number of consumers for the sponsors' products. This use of popularity as a measure of success is immediately equated by Mr. Breitenfeld with a lack of program balance and a need for program improvement. Because of the limitation of profit motive, Mr. Breitenfeld seems to feel that broadcasters are unable to effect such improvement themselves, and that Commission review and control of an individual station's programs is necessary.

We certainly agree, and indeed endorse, the fact that the broadcaster has a profit motive, but this alone is an incomplete truth. The broadcaster-licensee must report not only to his stockholder but, more importantly, to the viewers and listeners in the community which he serves. Without their good will and "patronage" of his programming, he would quickly lose his advertisers, and, in turn, his profits. The typical broadcaster, as a member of a local community, licensed to serve that community, feels a very deep responsibility to bring to bear the communications tool at his command in the service to the community. He serves not only the *wants* of his community, but the *needs* of his community as well. No other profit-making organizations devote more of time, manpower, money, and facilities to worthwhile

public service causes than do radio and television stations and networks. Such service is deeply rooted in the traditions of broadcasting, the licensee's responsibility to operate in the public interest, convenience and necessity, and in the conscience of the broadcaster himself. This latter element is codified in the Radio and Television Codes of the National Association of Broadcasters.

We now come to the assertion that broadcasting is a monopoly. At the present time there are 544 television stations on the air throughout the country. The intense competition which exists among stations and among the three national television networks, vying for audiences and advertisers, refutes any charge of monopoly. In radio, the competitive picture is even more intense, with 3,609 AM and 892 FM stations now on the air. Contrast this with the fact that there are only 1,850 daily newspapers today in the United States.[1] There is truly a microphone available to anyone who wishes to voice his opinion. The number of cities with competing daily newspapers has dropped from 239 in 1880 to 61 in 1960[2]. No one, to my knowledge, has suggested that the trend toward monopoly in the newspaper field requires that there be government control of our free press. Competition among radio stations, on the other hand, has become so severe that some have suggested that consideration be given to some form of radio station "birth control."

Ownership in both radio and television is characteristically centered in each local community. The FCC's rule against duopoly, and limiting the number of stations any one entity may own, precludes the development of a few large corporations, thus countering a trend so often found in other industries these days. In short, we have the very antithesis of the monopoly situation both in television and in radio.

Mr. Breitenfeld cites authority for the premise that broadcasting is not entitled to the First Amendment: "The radio as it now operates is not free, nor is it entitled to the protection of the First Amendment. It is not engaged in the task of enlarging and enriching human communication. It is engaged in making money. The First Amendment does not intend to guarantee men freedom to say what some private interest pays them to say for its own advantage . . ."[3] There is no basis for such conclusion either in law or in fact.

This erroneous conclusion, if applied to all media, would remove the protection of the First Amendment from all forms of communication except speech itself. Nothing but a soap-box in a public park is truly free from the dollar-and-cents point of view. The hiring of a hall, publishing of books, magazines and newspapers—all require the investment of large sums of money. They are not equally available to all citizens. True economic inequality exists in each of these media, yet I do not believe that Messrs. Breitenfeld and Meiklejohn would have the operation of the First Amendment limited or removed from books, newspapers or magazines. A long history of legal thought indicates that the protection of the First Amendment covers the communication of ideas, whether they are of the "discussion" or "amusement" type.[4] Further, the First Amendment has been specifically applied to the field of broadcasting by the United States Supreme Court.[5]

The question really is not whether we wish to allow private companies the luxury of being able to buy access to radio and television communications to the exclusion of those who cannot afford such access, but more importantly whether we wish to depend, for our necessary balance of opinions and ideas, upon the operation of government fiat exemplified in the theory of FCC control over programming, or whether we will depend for such balance upon a reasonably qualified operation of the market place. Thus we come to the need for free trade of ideas, advocated by Mr. Breitenfeld himself in his discussion. In all forms of modern mass communications, such a free market place of ideas can be found within the structure of a free economic market place . . . in our case the competition of the station for the advertiser, and of both the advertiser and the station for the audience.

This is not to say that freedom of speech is any more absolute in broadcasting than it is in other fields. The relativity of freedom dictates that certain forms of broadcast communication, such as obscenity or incitement to riot, be less protected than others. Communications consisting of "purely commercial advertising" are certainly less protected than other types of communication.[6] The broadcasters' concept of the First Amendment protection recognizes the qualification inherent in the scarcity of the spectrum space. In *National Broadcasting Co. v. United States*,[7] the Supreme Court stated, "The right of free speech does not include

however the right to use the facilities of radio without a license. The licensing system established by Congress in the Communications Act of 1934 was a proper exercise of its power over commerce." Congress itself recognized this concept by its prohibition of censorship written into Sec. 326 of the Communications Act.

In setting up the FCC as the regulatory body over the broadcast licensee, Congress established the standard to which all licensees must comply: that they operate in the public interest, convenience, and necessity. This does not necessarily conflict, as some have felt, with the prohibition against censorship. It means that some public responsibility is imposed on the broadcaster by the Act, and while Commission may not substitute its tastes and judgment for that of the licensee, it is on the other hand not required to close its eyes to abuses by a broadcaster. The Supreme Court has stated: "The 'public interest, convenience, or necessity' standard for the issuance of licenses would seem to imply a requirement that the applicant be law-abiding."[8]

We return at length to our basic premise, which we would submit in contradistinction to Mr. Breitenfeld. The application of the guarantee of freedom of speech as contained in the First Amendment to the field of broadcasting involves the interplay or balance of conflicting interests. In a Western democracy, we wish to extend as much freedom as is commensurate with the rights of other individuals—other broadcast stations, other advertisers, other politicians, other viewers. While it is technologically essential that the allocation of spectrum space be controlled, the program output must be left to the free interplay of the market-place. As in all mass media, the market-place of ideas is inexorably interwoven with the economic market-place.

The alternative to self-determination and self-regulation is a system of government imposed determination and regulation. Such a system would impose the taste of an individual or group of individuals in official capacity as to what is "right" or "proper" for the American audience. To exercise such absolute and plenary power over what President Kennedy has called "the most powerful and effective means of communications ever designed"[9] would not involve the application of a different standard of freedom for broadcasting. It would be a denial of freedom itself.

Footnotes

[1]Ayer, N. W. & Son. *Directory of Newspapers and Periodicals.*

[2]Nixon, Raymond B. and Jean Ward. "Trends in newspaper ownership and intermedia competition," *Journalism Quarterly*, Vol. 38, pp. 3-14 (Winter 1961).

[3]Meikeljohn, Alexander. *Free Speech and its Relation to Self Government.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948, p. 105.

[4]*Joseph Burstyn, Inc. v. Wilson*, 343 U.S. 495 (1952); *Winters v. New York*, 333 U.S. 507 (1948).

[5]See *National Broadcasting Co. v. United States*, 319 U.S. 190, at 226-227 (1943); *United States v. Paramount Pictures, Inc.*, 334 U.S. 131, 166 (1948) (dictum); and the concurring opinion in *Superior Films, Inc. v. Dept. of Education*, 346 U.S. 587, 588 (1954). See also *Bay State Beacon, Inc. v. F.C.C.*, 171 F. 2d 826 (D.C. Cir. 1948); and the lower court's opinion in *American Broadcasting Co. v. United States*, 110 F. Supp. 374 (S.D.N.Y. 1953), aff'd sub nom. *F.C.C. v. American Broadcasting Co.*, 347 U.S. 284 (1954).

[6]Compare *Valentine v. Chrestensen*, 316 U.S. 52 (1942) with *Schneider v. State*, 308 U. S. 147 (1939); see also *Thomas v. Collins*, 323 U.S. 516 (1945).

[7]319 U.S. 190 (1943).

[8]*F.C.C. v. American Broadcasting Co.*, 347 U.S. 284 (1954).

[9]Kennedy, John F. Address, National Association of Broadcasters Convention, Washington, D.C., May 8, 1961.

Comment by Mr. Breitenfeld

"The 'Relativity of Freedom' is a provocative and interesting essay. In answer to some of the points so ably presented by Mr. Bell, my comments are:

1. The 'central thrust' of my article is that the attitude of broadcasters to the First Amendment is distorted. They are invoking the principle of freedom of speech merely as a defense against an unrelated criticism.

2. Mr. Bell and I agree that broadcasting is a *technological* monopoly. The fact that there is fierce *economic* competition among licensees seems irrelevant, since only a limited number are allowed to compete.

3. I cannot speak for Mr. Meiklejohn, but it is my belief that broadcasting cannot be equated with other mass media. While tremendous investments are necessary in all such means of communication, broadcasting remains unique in that a government license is required.

4. I agree that government intervention in a system of free enterprise should be held to a minimum. I would, however, suggest that broadcast licensees be held to their original programming 'promises,' on the basis of which licenses were initially granted."

The Meaning of the "Public Interest, Convenience or Necessity"

BY FREDERICK W. FORD

Following issuance of the FCC Report and Statement of Policy *on programming on July 29, 1960, former FCC Commissioner Charles King challenged the "public interest, convenience or necessity" standard for broadcasting regulation on the grounds that the standard was incapable of definition. For the past year Commissioner (former Chairman) Ford has been preparing as an answer an analysis of the legislative and judicial history of the "public interest" standard and a defense of the programming report.*

His answer was first presented in the form of a speech to the Washington State Association of Broadcasters in Seattle on June 28, 1961. The article that follows is but slightly revised from the Seattle speech, and has been made into a landmark reference in communications law through the addition by Commissioner Ford of full documentation and legal citations.

The Journal of Broadcasting *is proud to publish this carefully reasoned analysis of the touchstone of American telecommunications policy. It was written by a man who has served the Federal Communications Commission and the public as attorney (from 1947 to 1957), as Commissioner since 1957, and for a year as Chairman of the Commission. He brought to the present study some 22 years in government service and a reputation as a "lawyer's lawyer."*

. . .

SOME years ago an outstanding attorney stated that the public interest, convenience or necessity is "simply what the Commissioners say it is at the time they render a decision." Equally critical remarks have come from other sources, and there are those who would argue, despite Supreme Court decisions to the contrary, that such a standard for the exercise of delegated power is so broad as to pose a serious constitutional question. Just last December the

final staff report to the Special Subcommittee on Legislative Oversight of the House of Representatives stated:

> The basic problem which is common to all the agencies, and which aggravates many others is the fact that the statutes from which they derive their authority are so often couched in broad general terms such as 'public interest' or 'public interest, convenience and necessity.'[1]

The result, according to this Report, is that agency members have "a discretion so wide that they can offer a more or less plausible explanation for any conclusion they choose to reach . . ."

If such statutory language can be the subject of so much informed criticism one is entitled to wonder why it was used in the first place. Why was this particular phrase selected? What, if anything, does it mean? Since the standard applies to two of our most important communications media—radio and television broadcasting—these questions may be of some interest to those whose chief occupational concern is with the communication of ideas. I should like to discuss the origins and meaning of the phrase. I shall attempt to suggest what significance was attached to the phrase by the Congress when it passed the Radio Act; what light has been thrown upon it over the years by the Courts in interpreting our statute; and what it signifies to the Commission today.

Until recent years a major segment of administrative law dealt with the transfer of power from legislatures to agencies. The legality of the delegation frequently hinged on the presence or absence of ascertainable standards, that is, whether, in Mr. Justice Cardozo's words, the delegation was "canalized within banks that keep it from overflowing." To meet this test, such phrases as "just and reasonable," "protection of investors," and "public interest" were commonly used as standards of legislative delegation. By and large they were accepted by the Courts as sufficiently meaningful to make the delegation valid. The standard, or "touchstone" as it has been called, set up by the Communications Act of 1934 was, of course, the "public interest, convenience or necessity." Insofar as it relates to broadcasting the term was taken from the Radio Act of 1927. There is little in the Committee reports and debates that preceded passage of the Radio Act to indicate *in any specific sense* what matters the phrase was intended to in-

clude. The subjects which most concerned the Congress, interference between stations, a fair allocation of frequencies, censorship, political broadcasting, property rights in a frequency, etc., were all dealt with in separate sections of the Act. It is clear, nonetheless, that to the framers of the Radio Act the "public interest, convenience or necessity" was a term of considerable significance.

Congressman White, the principal spokesman for the bill in the House, had this to say:

> First and foremost, [the legislation] asserts unequivocally the power and authority of the United States over this means of communication and gives to the Federal Government power over the vital factors of radio communication. It gives to the commission . . . the power to issue licenses if the public interest or the public convenience or public necessity will be served thereby.
>
> This is a new rule asserted for the first time, and it is offered to you as an advance over the present right of the individual to demand a license whether he will render service to the public thereunder or not.[2]

Senator Dill, who was the floor leader for the bill in the Senate, viewed the standard in a similar sense:

> When we lay down a basic principle to control the granting of licenses, we are then in a position to limit the right of those who want to use radio apparatus. The trouble today with the present law is that there is no basic principle upon which we can refuse licenses: and the court has mandamused the Secretary of Commerce to issue a license to an applicant for the simple reason that Congress has never laid down a basic principle. In this proposed law, however, we have laid down a basic principle—namely, the principle of public interest, convenience and necessity—which is the general legal phrase used regarding all public utilities engaged in interstate commerce. With that basic principle laid down, we then have a right to limit and if necessary prevent the use of radio apparatus in interstate commerce when such use would violate that principle.[3]

Two things are apparent from these and other segments of the legislative history. A regulatory standard was needed because the continued granting of licenses as a matter of right would bring chaos. That standard was to be, in the words of Congressman White, "service to the public." This thought may seem some-

thing of a platitude today. At that time, however, it was an unprecedented concept in radio law, even though regulation of a sort had begun as far back as 1910. In fact, the only comparable concept in Federal statutes as a condition for entry into interstate commerce appears to have been in the Transportation Act of 1920.

According to Judge Stephen Davis, who was Solicitor for the Department of Commerce under Herbert Hoover and a principal administration spokesman on the question of radio legislation, the idea of a public interest in broadcasting was first officially expressed in 1924 by Secretary Hoover before the Third Annual Radio Conference. The National Radio Conferences afforded a means whereby broadcasters exercised a degree of voluntary control over the industry in the absence of effective governmental legislation. Up to the time of the Third Conference broadcasting seemed to have been universally regarded as a private enterprise imbued with no public element whatever. While the broadcaster's purpose was generally to attract listeners through attractive program fare there was no duty to do so and no regulatory sanction available against any who did otherwise.

The idea of a public service in broadcasting was repeated more forcefully by Mr. Hoover a year later at the Fourth Radio Conference:

> The ether is a public medium, [he stated] and its use must be for public benefit. The use of a radio channel is justified only if there is public benefit. The dominant element for consideration in the radio field is, and always will be, the great body of the listening public, millions in number, countrywide in distribution . . .
>
> The greatest public interest must be the deciding factor. I presume that few will dissent as to the correctness of this principle, for all will agree that public good must overbalance private desire; but its acceptance leads to important and far-reaching practical effects, as to which there may not be the same unanimity, but from which, nevertheless, there is no logical escape.[4]

The Conference resolved, among other things, "That the public interest as *represented by service to the listener* shall be the basis for the broadcasting privilege." Its proceedings were furnished to both Houses of Congress and were undoubtedly accorded considerable weight in framing the 1927 Act.

Writing as an informed contemporary observer, Judge Davis had this to say in 1927 concerning the adoption of the new standard:

> The act contains no definition of the words 'public convenience, interest, and necessity,' and their meaning must be sought elsewhere. The phrase has been used in many state statutes with respect to public utilities, such as water, electric, gas, and bus companies. The state laws do not attempt to define it. Indeed, it has been said to be a legislative impossibility to give the words exact definition. They comprehend the public welfare and involve a question of fact deducible from a variety of circumstances. They require determination as to reasonable necessity or urgent public need or high importance to the public welfare, but not indispensability of the service, and the decision is made from considerations of sound public policy after due regard is given to all of the relevant facts affecting the general public as well as the applicant. The convenience and necessity of the public as distinguished from that of the individual or any number of individuals is the test. The desire of the applicant is not the influencing factor.[5]

Historically, then, I think it is clear that the "public interest, convenience or necessity" had great meaning at the time it was adopted as a legislative standard in the Radio Act. Its significance lay in the contrast it presented to what had prevailed before. Private interests were to be subordinated to those of the listening public. Although accepted as axiomatic today, the fact that licenses could no longer be had for the asking was described in 1927 by Judge Davis as constituting "a revolution in practice." Within this general frame of reference however, any further refinement of the term had to await decisions rendered by the Courts under the new law as well as the rules and case law which the regulatory body would establish.

In an early case involving the Radio Commission, the Supreme Court observed that the standard of public interest, convenience or necessity "is to be interpreted by its context, by the nature of radio transmission and reception, by the scope, character and quality of service and where an equitable adjustment between states is in view, by the relative advantages in service which will be enjoyed by the public through the distribution of facilities." The Court went on to reject the contention that the criterion was so indefinite as to confer an unlimited grant of power.

The most significant Supreme Court pronouncement in this area occurred in 1943 in the so-called "Chain Broadcasting Case" which upheld the validity of the Commission's network regulations. Here the Court viewed the "public interest, convenience or necessity" mandate in terms of other more specific sections of the Act. "The public interest to be served," stated the Court, was "the interest of the listening public in 'the larger, and more effective use of radio'." To express the situation in less general terms, the Court looked to one of the avowed purposes of the Act, the securing of maximum benefits of radio to all the people of the United States, and to such other mandates and authorizations as appear throughout the statute—classifying radio stations, prescribing the nature of the service to be rendered, preventing interference, encouraging the wider use of radio, regulating chain broadcasting, assuring a fair, equitable and efficient distribution of services, the anti-monopoly policy embodied in Sections 311 and 313, etc. Viewing the Act as a whole and looking to these features of it as embodiments of the public interest, the Court observed that Congress had done

> what experience had taught it in similar attempts at regulation, even in fields where the subject matter of regulation was far less fluid and dynamic than radio. The essence of that experience was to define broad areas for regulation and to establish standards for judgment adequately related in their application to the problem to be solved.[6]

Another landmark case in interpreting the scope of the statutory standard was the *Sanders Brothers* case, decided by the Supreme Court in 1940.[7] One of the questions before the Court was whether the Commission must take into account as part of the public interest, convenience or necessity, the economic injury to an existing station which would be caused by the licensing of a new facility in the same community. Looking to the statute as a whole the Court held that in adapting to radio a legislative standard commonly associated with public utility regulation, Congress had no intention of protecting existing licensees from competition—that except where injury to the public was apparent, the broadcaster was "to survive or sucumb according to his ability to make his programs attractive to the public." The Court noted that in contrast to statutory provisions dealing with interstate regulation of transportation and communication by telephone and

telegraph, the law gave the Commission no powers to regulate rates or charges in broadcasting or to eliminate wasteful practices or otherwise regulate the licensee's business. The Court's decision, then, makes clear that the term "public interest, convenience or necessity," when read in the context of the Act as a whole, is not to be given as broad a meaning as elsewhere in public utility regulation. The concept of "public necessity" so important in other regulatory fields seems to be one of lesser consequence to be viewed in the context of free competition, rather than of restricted entry into the field. Broadcasting is in the Court's words "open to anyone, provided there be an available frequency over which he can broadcast without interference to others, if he shows his competency, the adequacy of his equipment, and financial ability to make good use of the assigned channel."

The emphasis in *Sanders* on the competitive aspects of broadcasting of course did not mean that the "public interest, convenience or necessity" stood for a policy of *laissez-faire* except for electrical interference. In that case and elsewhere it has been held that where competition might be destructive, that is, where the public would suffer a loss of service through the demise of a station or through decline in the quality of available service, at that point "the element of injury ceases to be a matter of purely private concern" and must be considered by the Commission.

This attention to the quality of service—and I am speaking of program service rather than the quality of the signal—has itself been a subject of great controversy over the years. Like economic injury, programming as such is not a subject which the Act specifically commands the Commission to consider in granting licenses. Section 326, moreover, prohibits censorship and interference with freedom of speech by the Commission. Nevertheless the Courts have repeatedly held that programming is a significant element in determining a station's performance in the public interest. As far back as 1931 the Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia affirmed the Radio Commission's judgment that a station's license should not be renewed because its programming was contrary to the public interest.[8] Similarly, the power to compare the program proposals of competing applicants, to consider programming in determining whether an existing station's service

area should be infringed upon by a new station, and to disqualify an applicant for a new station on the ground of program inadequacies, all have been affirmed as properly within the scope of the public interest, convenience or necessity standard. The Chain Broadcasting Case already referred to is also significant on this score:

> The right of free speech does not include, however, the right to use the facilities of radio without a license. The licensing system established by Congress in the Communications Act of 1934 was a proper exercise of its power over commerce. The standard it provided for the licensing of stations was the 'public interest, convenience, or necessity.' Denial of a station license on that ground, if valid under the Act, is not a denial of free speech.[9]

Likewise, the Courts have affirmed the Commission's authority to act in other areas under the public interest, convenience and necessity standard where more specific language was absent. For example, it has been held that the Commission may properly look into the business practices of a newspaper which comes before it as an applicant for a broadcast station. A license may be denied as contrary to the public interest because the antenna tower proposed is deemed a menace to air navigation. Misrepresentation and bad faith are factors bearing on the public interest. Limitations may properly be imposed on the number of stations an individual or business entity may hold because diversity of ownership is in the public interest. The expeditious conduct of the Commission's business has also been recognized as a factor not unrelated to the public interest.

The list of examples could go on but to extend it further would be needless, I think, for our purposes. In general, over the years, the Courts have not attempted to state where lies the public interest, convenience or necessity in a given factual situation. Rather they have indicated areas that could or should properly be the Commission's concern under the general standard, leaving the process of further refinement to the agency. The standard itself, they have chosen to regard as "a supple instrument for the exercise of discretion by the expert body which Congress has charged to carry out its legislative policy . . ."[10] But the public interest in any given set of circumstances has been for the Commission, not the Courts to decide.

As many observers of the Commission and its operations have noted, the Commission has never specifically defined "the public interest, convenience and necessity." The reason, I suspect, is the same one which led the Congress to refrain from doing so: in a field so "fluid and dynamic" as radio it would be undesirable even if it were within the realm of possibility, to dictate a meaningful formula to be rigidly applied henceforth to all factual situations with which the Commission may be confronted. Those who long for a definitive statement of the term are seeking to simplify something which is inherently complex. Yet if they are willing to look, I think they will find that in all of the major areas which the Congress and the Courts have acknowledged as representing components of the public interest, there exist rules, policy statements and decisions by the Commission which serve to refine the legislative and judicial determinations and give substance to the bare language of the statute. Although it is often said that the sole criterion governing Commission action is the public interest, convenience or necessity, in actual practice our judgment is largely determined by specific components of the public interest which are set forth in the various sections of the Communications Act, in case law, and in agency rules of such long standing and sound basis that no good reason exists for departing from them.

There are, of course, some areas where our discretion to act in the public interest is broader than others. An example of this is the purely comparative hearing between two or more applications for the same facility, and in which those who seek the franchise have been found basically qualified, leaving only the question of deciding between them. This type of proceeding, especially where a television license is involved, has attracted much attention in recent years, particularly by those who criticize the "public interest" as being too broad a standard. In reality, these cases make up a relatively small part of our regulatory activity in the broadcast field. Even here, however, the public interest is not a capricious thing; it exists in terms of criteria which have evolved from practice and experience. Their validity has been affirmed repeatedly in the Courts, and they have been applied with what I think is a reasonable consistency, considering the multiplicity of factual situations which arise, the number of variables involved within each proceeding, and the

fact that each decision represents a consensus of the views of individual members of a body whose composition is by law subject to change at regular intervals. While there are undoubtedly ways in which the procedure employed for choosing a grantee could be improved upon, I would hesitate to say that the selective process would be bettered if the Commission's judgment were to be restricted by statute.

It seems to me that in the broadest sense—based on the statute as a whole, its legislative history, judicial interpretations, and the rules, policies and decisions of the Commission—what we are really talking about when we speak of the public interest, convenience and necessity in broadcasting is just what Congressman White referred to in 1927 and the Supreme Court echoed many years later in the Chain Broadcasting case:—that is, service to the public; service of the highest order reasonably and practically possible. This means, first of all, the availability of programming of an acceptable signal quality, and secondly, it means content designed to serve a useful social purpose.

I should like to end this discussion by outlining some of the considerations which I believe can be identified as representing components of the public interest, convenience, and necessity in the sensitive and controversial area of programming. First of all there is, as we have seen, the dominant theme of the entire regulatory structure—service to the public. Programming, like all other aspects of a licensee's operation must be imbued with an element of public service.

There are also a number of requirements in the Communications Act bearing on program content. Most important of these is Section 326, establishing that the Commission shall have "no power of censorship" and no authority to "interfere with the right of free speech by means of radio communication." Freedom from governmental control or supervision of programs is thus an element of the public interest.

Elsewhere, the law provided further guidance: Certain types of programming matter are expressly outlawed by the Criminal Code: obscene, indecent and profane language, lottery information, and so forth. Just last year, as an outgrowth of the disclosures regarding fraudulent quiz shows, Congress passed a law

prohibiting deceitful practices in broadcasting contests of intellectual knowledge and skill. Section 315 of the Act requires that equal time be given candidates for political office in the use of a station's facilities; and that in connection with their presentation of the news, broadcasters are obliged "to afford reasonable opportunity for the discussion of conflicting views on issues of public importance."

All of these statutory requirements have been implemented by the Commission through rules, policy pronouncements and case-to-case decisions. A particularly noteworthy example of this is the Commission's Report "Editorializing by Broadcast Licensees"[11] which embodies the agency's concept of what the public interest consists of in the treatment of controversial issues of public importance. The Report stands for the major proposition that broadcast licensees have the duty to devote a reasonable percentage of their broadcasting time to the discussion of public issues of interest in the communities served by their stations—that such programs should be designed so that the public has a reasonable opportunity to hear different opposing positions on the public issues of interest and importance in the community—and that such discussion of public issues can include the identified expression of the licensee's personal viewpoints. The standard prescribed by the Commission for a fair presentation of controversial issues which would also apply to editorials of a controversial character is "an affirmative duty generally to encourage and implement the broadcast of all sides of controversial public issues over their facilities."

Aside from these areas, however, the public interest becomes less easy to identify, and the Commission frequently faces a dilemma as old as the regulation of broadcasting: how to make a determination involving public interest, convenience or necessity and at the same time avoid censorship and restriction on freedom of speech. I think nearly everyone would regard it as intolerable if the Commission were to find in the public interest the vicious personal attacks and abuse which characterized the so-called "programming" of one broadcast licensee in the early days of radio. The Radio Commission refused to renew the license and I believe the present Commission would react in the same way. On

the other hand, the Commission is not an academy of fine arts and no one on the Commission, I am sure, regards himself as a cultural arbiter for the nation. We have neither the power nor the desire to impose personal tastes and preferences on broadcasters or on the American people.

About a year and a half ago the Commission conducted an inquiry on programming, hearing testimony from over ninety witnesses, including representatives of religious and civic groups, educators and spokesmen from the broadcast industry. Out of these proceedings has come what I believe to be most comprehensive statement ever adopted by the Commission on the relationship between radio and television programs and the statutory public interest, convenience and necessity standard. I am speaking of our Report and Statement of Policy issued July 29, 1960.[12]

At the outset I referred to a remark once made to the effect that the public interest is whatever the Commission says it is. It seems to me that except for the specific requirements of law I have already mentioned, the Commission's Policy Statement turns the tables completely. It recognizes that in providing service to his community, the public interest is what the *licensee* says it is; *provided*—and this is the key— provided that his judgment is the result of a reasonable and *bona fide* effort to ascertain the program interests and needs of the area he is licensed to serve. After outlining a variety of program types normally associated with broadcasting in the public interest, the Report emphasizes that "the principal ingredient of the licensee's obligation to operate his station in the public interest is the diligent, positive and continuing effort by the licensee to discover and fulfill the tastes, needs and desires of his community or service area."

Of course, such a policy will not be completely self-effectuating, but will depend on a system of reporting that will require the broadcaster to expend a good deal of time and thought to his role in the community. The program statement expands on this considerably, and currently the Commission is engaged in revamping its reporting requirements to place greater emphasis on licensee efforts to seek out actively the needs, interests and desires of all

the people residing in his service area. In the words of the Program Report:

> . . . What we propose is documented program submissions prepared as the result of assiduous planning and consultation covering two main areas; first, a canvass of the listening public who will receive the signal and who constitute a definite public interest figure; second, consultation with leaders in community life—public officials, educators, religious, the entertainment media, agriculture, business, labor— professional and eleemosynary organizations, and others who bespeak the interests which make up the community.
>
> By the care spent in obtaining and reflecting the views thus obtained; . . . will the standard of programming in the public interest be best fulfilled.[13]

It is neither legally nor humanly possible for an agency such as ours single handedly to raise the quality of what we listen to and see on our radio and television sets. The Commission is determined, however, to do its part. If the broadcasters are equal to the challenge and if the American public will assist them in their efforts, I am convinced that the benefits of radio which the authors of the Radio Act first envisioned when they established the legislative standard of "public interest, convenience or necessity" will be fully realized.

Footnotes

[1]U.S. House of Representatives. *Independent Regulatory Commissions.* Staff Report to the Special Subcommittee on Legislative Oversight of the Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Govt. Printing Office, 1960. p. 6.

[2]68 *Congressional Record* 2579.

[3]68 *Congressional Record* 3027.

[4]*Proceedings of the 4th Radio Conference.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Govt. Printing Office, 1926. pp. 7-8.

[5]Davis, Stephen. *The Law of Radio Communication.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1927. p. 59.

[6]*National Broadcasting Company* v. *United States*, 319 U.S. 190, at 219-220.

[7]*Federal Communications Commission* v. *Sanders Brothers Radio Station*, 309 U.S. 470.

[8]*Trinity Methodist Church, South* v. *Federal Radio Commission*, 62 F 2nd 850, cert. denied 284 U.S. 685, 288 U.S. 599.

[9]*National Broadcasting Company* v. *United States*, 319 U.S. 190, at 227.

[10]*Federal Communications Commission* v. *Pottsville Broadcasting Co.*, 309 U.S. 134, 138.

[11]Federal Communications Commission. "Editorializing by broadcast licensees." 14 *Federal Register* 3055, 1 Pike and Fischer *Radio Regulation*, 91:201.

[12]Federal Communications Commission. Report and Statement of Policy, July 29, 1960. 25 *Federal Register* 7291, 20 Pike and Fischer *Radio Regulation*, 1901.

[13]Federal Communications Commission. Report and Statement of Policy, July 29, 1960. 25 *Federal Register* at 7296, 20 Pike and Fischer *Radio Regulation* at 1915.

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Sale and Value of Radio Stations

BY PAUL J. DEUTSCHMANN AND WALTER B. EMERY

Appraisal of a broadcasting station for the purpose of sale is an activity involving considerable risk and even more guesswork. It is very hard to determine value, particularly when the purchase price is determined more by intangible assets and prospects than real property, and a cursory examination of the public record of the purchase price yields insufficient information about these prospects, assets and attributes.

Most of the important information desirable is available, however, in the public records of the Federal Communications Commission, on file in Washington. Obtaining the desired information from these records requires considerable effort, from first finding out just what is available and then performing the time-consuming task of abstracting from the records. In this activity, knowledge of FCC procedures is a valuable asset. In the report that follows, data were gathered by Dr. Walter B. Emery, former FCC staff member and presently Professor in the Television and Radio Department of Michigan State University, while spending much of the summer of 1960 at the FCC under a research grant from Michigan State University. The correlational analyses and composition of the report were conducted by Dr. Paul J. Deutschmann, Director of the Communications Research Center at Michigan State University.

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TO what extent do American radio stations change hands? What kinds of sale prices do they command? Is it possible to correlate these prices with indices descriptive of the station and its activities? In the year studied, 1958, over 11% of commercial AM stations changed hands, pointing up the importance of these questions to the industry, to the Federal Communications Commission, to Congress, and to students and critics of broadcasting.

Method of Study

In conducting this study, three basic sources of information on transfers for 1958 were utilized. These included:

1. Applications for transfer of control on file with the FCC (these yielded sale price, per cent of ownership transferred, etc.)

2. FCC records on original applications (these yielded original estimated costs of construction, estimated revenue from station operation, power, coverage, etc.)

3. *Standard Rate and Date Service* listings (these yielded information on current per cent of U. S. population within coverage area of the station, per cent of national income within the community served by the station, advertising rate of the station per 1 minute and per 15 minutes.)

After the various descriptive measures were obtained, they were analyzed by means of correlational techniques. The first goal was to describe the scope of transfers; the second to attempt to discover inter-relationships among the several potential indices of radio station value; the third to utilize some combination of these indices in an attempt to "predict" these values by multiple correlation.

Results

Buyers in 1958 paid a total of $43,549,000 for full or partial ownership of 386 different radio stations. Approximately 80% of the transfers involved 100% of ownership; the remainder represented some fraction, usually greater than 50%. Applying the FCC information on per cent of ownership, we can estimate that the total market value of the transferred stations in 1958 was $45,116,000.

The stations sold represented 11.6% of commercial AM broadcasting stations on the air during 1958.[1] If this sample of stations sold was representative of the total population of stations, we might estimate that the total market value of radio stations at that point was around $400,000,000. For a number of reasons it would appear that this estimate is somewhat low.

First, it should be noted that the sales were not distributed geographically on a uniform basis. In the 10 North Atlantic states, only 28 stations were sold, an average of 2.8 per state and only about 7 per cent of the total sales. In contrast, in the 13 southern and border states, 146 stations were sold, an average of 11.3 per state and about 38 per cent of the total sales. The geographic distribution is provided in Table 1.

TABLE I

Distribution of Station Transfers by Region

Region	No. Trans-ferred	% of Trans-fers	Total Stations by Region No.	Total Stations by Region %	% Sold
Far West & Mountain	99	26%	642	19.3%	15.4%
South West & Plains	56	14	409	12.3	13.7
South & Border	146	38	1172	35.2	12.4
Midwest	53	14	617	18.5	8.6
East (North Atlantic)	28	7	459	13.8	6.1
Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands	4	1	34	1.0	11.8
Total	386	100%	3333	100.1%	11.6%

TABLE II

Distribution of Station Transfers by Power

Power	No. Trans-ferred	% of Trans-fers	Total Stations by Power Rating No.	Total Stations by Power Rating %	% Sold
Under 250 W	7	2%	23	.1%	30.4%
250 W	123	32	1108	33.3	11.1
500 W	49	13	289	8.7	17.0
1 KW	134	35	1135	34.1	11.8
5 KW	59	15	630	18.9	9.4
10 KW	6	2	58	1.7	10.4
50 KW	5	1	90	2.7	5.6
Total	383*	100%	3333	99.5%	11.5%

*Information was lacking on 3 stations.

It should be noted in Tables I and II that any differences are *real* differences since we are not dealing with samples; rather we are comparing all sales with all stations.

An indication that the transferred stations disproportionately represent the newer, less costly stations, was provided by information on cross-media ownership. Only about 8% of transferred stations were owned by other media (newspapers, magazines, and film companies), while 17.4% of all stations were newspaper-owned in 1955 and 12.2% in 1960.[2] This group represents more of the older, well-established stations in large markets and was not represented in the 1958 sale group to the extent that they existed in the total population.

Table III provides a summary of a number of measures of the "average" station sold. There is no suggestion that this is the typical station. Rather the data can be used as a means of exploring some of the aspects of radio stations in general and those which are sold in particular. These figures are based upon the approximately 200 stations for which complete data was available.

TABLE III

Mean Values for Transferred Stations

Population and Income Coverage	
% of U. S. Population	0.0804%
% of U. S. Income	0.0828%
Number of persons covered	130,000 to 140,000
Rate Information	
Mean rate for 1 minute	$ 6.95
Mean rate for 15 minutes	$21.75
Original Application Information	
Mean estimated original cost	$26,239.00
Mean estimated original revenue	$58,897.00
Mean age of station	10.4 years
Sale Price Information	
Mean sale price	$111,180.00
Mean total value	$120,360.00

While Table III is based upon only those cases for which full data was available, the differences between this sub group and the full 386 are not large on data we can compare. For example, average sale price for the 386 stations was $112,821, just slightly above the figure for the group with complete data. Average total value, on the other hand, was $116,883, just under the figure for the group with complete data. It would appear that on these key variables, the partial group is not substantially different from the total group. We can expect that interpretations based upon the partial group should, in the main, conform to what would have been obtained if all of the data had been available. Incompleteness of FCC records, changes in call letters making cross-identification difficult, and other factors account for the incompleteness of the data.

From Table III we can find a variety of ways to describe total value of a radio station—on the average. Thus we can say that the total value in 1958 was two times the estimated revenue 10.4 years earlier, or that it was about 4½ times estimated original cost, or that it was just under $1 per person covered.

Another way of looking at it is in terms of rates. For example, the total value is about equal to the revenue which would be produced at the average rate of $6.95 for 40 to 45 one-minute spots per day for a year.

While we do not know, of course, how much additional investment took place through the years, these approaches suggest that radio station sellers—on the average—got a very satisfactory return in relation to original estimated cost.

Prosperity Index

Through the use of *Standard Rate and Data Service* reports of per cent of U. S. population and per cent of U. S. income within the primary service areas of stations, we developed an index of the "prosperity" of the community of each station by dividing the per cent of income by the per cent of population. An index of 1.00 indicates that income and population are in balance; greater than 1.00 shows that the market has more income than we would expect for its population; and less than 1.00 indicates a less prosperous community.

To a considerable extent, this index is related to size of community. In general we find that the larger communities have a disproportionately larger percentage of income and that the smaller a disproportionately smaller, reflecting the concentration of wealth in large urban centers. The index also is related to region. For example, the lack of economic development of the South is ordinarily reflected in indices of less than one; the Far West on the other hand shows an opposite tendency.

We can get some indication of these differences if we will compare the prosperity indices of communities in which TV, FM and AM stations were sold.

It is clear that standard radio stations were located in less prosperous communities while FM and TV stations were in some-

what more prosperous communities. This is in accord with the relation between size of community and "prosperity index," since

TABLE IV

Prosperity Level and Class of Sale

	FM	TV	AM	Total
Index less than 1.00	37%	39%	54%	51%
Index of 1.00 or greater	63%	61%	46%	49%
(Number)	(40)	(26)	(291)	(357)

TV stations (and to some extent FM) are located in larger communities.

The relation of this index to region of the country has to be taken into consideration also. Table V shows that radio communities sorted by region of the country do not have equal distributions of prosperity indices.

TABLE V

Prosperity Level and Region of Country for AM Sales

	Far West & Mountain	East	Midwest	Southwest & Plains	South
Index less than 1.00	27%	20%	45%	58%	89%
Index 1.00 or greater	73%	80%	55%	42%	11%
(Number)	(82)	(25)	(49)	(43)	(92)

Actually, the tendency of the South and Southwest regions is so overpowering that it also affects the TV and FM data. For example, only 14% of the communities in these two regions whose TV stations were sold had prosperity indices above 1.00 and only 33% of Southern FM station towns had indices this large.

Even though this measure provided some illumination on other factors affecting radio station values, on the whole it was inadequate as a single index. It correlated only .33 with sales price.[3] At least part of this low correlation may be produced by the variation in index levels from one part of the nation to another as well as variations in station values which related to such matters as year of origin. Another possible explanation may be that

many of the small low-value stations (under $25,000) are located in communities with relatively high prosperity indices. It may be that radio stations can in effect "get by" either with a large audience which has a low income level or a small audience which has a high level and that their sale prices reflect these combinations.

Inter-Relationship of Indices

A part of this study was to determine whether all or any part of the obtained indices related in any significant degree to the total values of the various radio stations. Accordingly, the kind of investigation just reported on the prosperity index was extended to seven more variables. Included were Percent of Population, Percent of Income, Rate for One Minute, Rate for 15 Minutes, Original Estimated Cost, Original Estimated Revenue, and Year of Original Application. Product-moment correlations between each variable and every other were produced by a computer.

The correlations between station value and the various indices are provided in Table VI.

TABLE VI

Correlations Between Nine Indices and Radio Station Value

Variable	Correlation Coefficient*
Percent of Population	.42
Percent of Income	.41
Age of Station	.20
Rate per one minute	.55
Rate per fifteen minutes	.41
Original Estimated Cost	.23
Original Estimated Revenue	.41
Prosperity Index	.33

*If we consider this group of stations as a sample of all stations, all correlations are significantly greater than zero at the .05 level and all .30 or larger at the .01 level.

The fact that all of the correlations are positive and significantly larger than zero supports the notion that each of these factors has "something to do with" station value. Rate information, particularly the one-minute figure, is most closely related.

Age of Station and Original Estimated Cost "say something" about station value, but not very much.

Analysis of these correlations, plus the additional set which shows to what extent each of the items is related to the other (as for example % of population and % of income) suggest that they are related by pairs. Applying a simple approximation to factor analysis[4] we find three clusters of items:

1. Current Population and Economic Data.
2. Rate Information.
3. Original Cost and Revenue Data.

At this point, we can consider the practical utility of the results. For example, they suggest that Original Cost and Original Revenue, which are matters of FCC records, can be used to tell us something about station value. But since they are quite strongly correlated to each other (.51), we don't gain much by using both of them. If we want to choose between them, the results indicate that Original Estimated Revenue is a better "predictor" of what station value is likely to be.

The same may be said for rates. Either one-minute or 15-minute rate figures will tell something about value, but they also are very "similar" (.73). Again, we have an indication that the one-minute rate is better than the 15-minute.

Percentage of Population and Income in themselves are almost identical (correlation .99), and there is no difference between them as far as predictive value is concerned. Their ratio, however, as expressed in the Prosperity Index, does squeeze out some surplus information, since it is related to station value (.33) but not appreciably related to Population (.16) or Income (.21).

On the basis of this analysis, the next step, multiple correlation, was undertaken.[5] The notion was that some combination of indices would produce a higher correlation, and, in a sense, a "better explanation" of the differences in station values. Four multiple R's were produced by a computer, with the following results:

Untransformed data:

% of Population, Year of Application, Rate per One Minute, Original Estimated Revenue, Prosperity Index
R = .630

Same group with Rate per 15 Minutes and Original Estimated Cost added
R = .630

The results indicate we can do a somewhat better job of "predicting" since it does represent a considerable improvement in our ability to account for variance in Station Value. Thus, with an obtained r of .55 between Value and Rate per Minute we could speak in terms of 30 per cent of the variation in Station Value accounted for. With the best multiple R of .634, we could speak in terms of 40 per cent of the variation being accounted for.[6]

Examination of the data indicated that the largest "accounter" for variance is the Rate per Minute, but that small contributions are made by Original Estimated Revenue, Prosperity Index, and Percent of Population (or Income). While the general assumptions of the analysis—that Station Value could be accounted for by these indices—is supported, it should be noted that the major portion of the variation remains unexplained.

It seems likely that new data would have to be brought into the analysis to make substantial improvement. For example, some index of share of audience within market might be useful. A problem on such an index, of course, is that data are not readily available or that their reliability is often questionable.

Summary

In conclusion, this investigation has provided some basic descriptive materials on the matter of radio station sales and values. We have a hard figure—$43,549,000—on the amount of money spent to acquire radio stations in 1958. And from this and other figures, we have some indicators of the average value of stations which were sold and how this relates to other measures of station size.

The correlational investigation has given some indication of how good some relatively easily available figures (such as rate information) are in predicting the total value of a radio station, a

figure which is relatively difficult to obtain. But we also have an indication that even a complex of items used all together through the multiple correlational technique, do not account for a major portion of the variation. And to obtain a more powerful formula, it would appear necessary to introduce data which are not generally available.

Footnotes

[1]These figures are based upon a total of 3333 commercial AM broadcasting stations, as reported in *Broadcasting*, March 16, 1959.

[2]Nixon, Raymond B. and Jean Ward. "Trends in newspaper ownership and inter-media competition." *Journalism Quarterly*, Vol. 38, No. 1, pp. 3-14 (Winter 1961).

[3]The correlation coefficient can take values from +1.00 to −1.00. If an increase in one item were consistently accompanied by a similar *increase* in another item, a value near 1.00 would be obtained; if an increase in one item were accompanied by a *decrease* in another item, a value near minus 1.00 would be obtained. See McNemar, Quinn. *Psychological Statistics*. New York: Wiley, 1949. Chapters 6 & 7.

[4]McQuitty, Louis L. "Elementary linkage analysis for isolating orthogonal and oblique types and typal relevances." *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, Vol. XVII, pp. 207-229 (1957).

[5]Multiple correlation utilizes a combination of variables to predict some "dependent" variable. Thus, if a number of different factors relate to, or affect, a variable, we can use them "all together" to try to predict that variable. McNemar, *op. cit.*, pp. 150-165.

[6]McNemar, *op. cit.*, pp. 144-165.

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Factors Related to Attention to the First Kennedy-Nixon Debate

BY LIONEL C. BARROW, JR.

A recent survey by BROADCASTING *of television programming personnel indicates that professionals in the broadcasting field agree with the general public in holding that the Kennedy-Nixon debates during the late presidential election campaign were among the most exciting programs ever presented on television. We know that the audiences to these "great debates" were among the largest ever recorded, but sheer numbers do not tell us why audiences paid attention to these debates in the first place, much less the potential and actual effects of these programs.*

The following article is one of a number being prepared by the members of the Communications Research Center at Michigan State University, covering a great many facets of political behavior in the 1960 campaign and election. The author of the following article, Dr. Lionel C. Barrow, Jr., is Assistant Professor in the Communications Research Center.

. . .

IN percentage points, the 1960 presidential election was the closest in the history of the United States. John F. Kennedy won by less than one-tenth of a percentage point in the popular vote.[1]

Political pundits and historians will probably spend quite a bit of time conjecturing about why the election was so close and why Kennedy won. One matter to which they will undoubtedly pay close attention will be the famous "first" in this election brought about through the efforts of the broadcasting industry. We are referring, of course, to the "Great Debates" between Kennedy and Nixon which marked the first time that candidates for our highest office discussed the issues of the campaign on the same platform, before a watching and listening audience of millions of people.

The major emphasis in this article will be on the social and psychological factors related to attention to the first debate, held on September 26, 1960. A subsequent article will deal with the effects of the debate upon such matters as the image of the two candidates and voting intent.

The factors investigated included such traditional ones as sex, party identification, religious identification, voting intent, education and occupation. An attempt was also made to relate certain beliefs held by the respondents to their viewing behavior. In addition, two special indices were computed and related to viewing behavior.

The first is an index of *social position* (or socio-economic status). It was computed from our data on education and occupation according to a procedure recommended by Hollingshead.[2]

The second is an index of *social stress*. It was formed from various combinations of a person's political and religious identifications. Specifically, a person is in a *stress* situation when his party and religious identifications dictate *different* courses of action. He is in a *non-stress* situation if his identifications dictate the *same* course of action. By our definition, a person who identifies himself as "Protestant" and "Democrat" is in a *stress* situation. His identifications dictate different courses of action—if he voted according to his party identification he would vote for Kennedy, but if he planned to vote according to his religious identification, he would not vote for Kennedy. A Catholic Republican would also be in a *stress* situation, while a Protestant Republican and a Catholic Democrat would be in a *non-stress* situation. We hypothesize that more persons in a stress situation (the Protestant Democrats and the Catholic Republicans) would avoid viewing the first debate than persons in a non-stress situation. (For the purpose of this analysis, all persons not fitting any of the above categories are classified as "others," and, in a sense, become a control group for the remainder of the sample.)

Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory[3]—to which the above hypothesis is related—also predicts differential behavior for persons in the process of making a decision and for those who have already made a decision. Festinger suggests that a person making

a decision between two equally attractive alternatives should seek information to help him decide. Festinger further predicts that, having made a decision, the person should actively seek information to confirm the rightness of his choice and actively avoid information that might deny the correctness of his choice.

Therefore, as a second hypothesis, we predict that voters who are "not absolutely certain" how they are going to vote (but who plan to vote) would be more apt to view the program than would those who had already made up their minds.[4]

As the above indicates, we predict that the debate "avoiders" are most likely to be people who are in a "stress" situation and who definitely know for whom they intend to vote. It also indicates that we are predicting that the people least likely to avoid (or more likely to attend to) the debate are those in a non-stress situation who have not definitely made up their minds. Those in a stress situation who are not certain of their voting intentions and those in a non-stress situation who are certain should be about equal in their attention behavior.

Procedures

The data in this article are based on two interviews with each of 170 registered voters in the Lansing-East Lansing (Michigan) area.[5] All information was obtained via phone interviews with at least three call-backs to reach the "not-at-homes." The voters were interviewed during the week preceding the September 26 debate and during a five-day period immediately after the debate. All indicated that they intended to vote in the November election.

Lansing, the capital city of the state of Michigan, is the home of a major automobile plant. It has a population of 107,807 (1960 census). East Lansing (pop., 30,198) is primarily a middle and upper-class residential area and is the home of Michigan State University. The Lansing-East Lansing area consistently votes Republican by a 4-3 or larger margin in state and national elections. It has a higher than average proportion of college graduates and white collar workers. Table I compares available census data for occupation, sex and education with comparable sample data. This table indicates that there are more "white collar workers"

and college-educated persons in our sample than in the population. But this is to be expected, since we only interviewed registered voters.

TABLE I

Comparison of Sample Composition with 1950 Census*

	Occupation			Education	
	Census	Sample		Census	Sample
Prof. & Mgr.	22%	37%	College Grad or More	12%	24%
Clerical and Sales	29	18	Some College	14	10
Craftsmen and Foreman	13	18	High School Grad	25	39
Others†	36	27	Some High School	18	15
	Sex		8 or less years‡	31	12
	Census	Sample			
Male	48%	42%			
Female	52	58			

*1950 census data used because comparable 1960 data for Michigan not available at time report was written.
†Does not include farmers.
‡"Unreported" figures included here.

During the pre-debate interviews, no questions were asked concerning the debate itself. This was done in order to minimize any "panel sensitivity" effect. However, the saliency of the debate was ascertained by responses to several open-end questions on the campaign in general. During the post-debate interviews, the general questions were asked first—again to determine saliency—and several specific questions were asked concerning attention to and interest in the first debate.

The data reported in this article were analyzed via Chi Square procedures recommended by Cochran[6] and range test procedures for proportions recommended by Ryan.[7] The traditional .05 level is accepted as the level of significance.

Results

An estimated 70 million people watched the first TV debate.[8] In our sample, 75 percent watched all or some of the television

version. Half of the sample watched it to the bitter end and four of these also heard all of the radio version which was broadcast an hour earlier in Michigan.

There was no significant relationship found between debate exposure and the following variables: sex of respondent; social stress situation; party identification or voting choice certainty. There was a significant relationship (at the .01 level) between debate exposure and social position (and its two components—education and occupation, both at the .02 level); religious affiliation and the belief that religion was the most important issue in the campaign (at the .01 level). In all cases the debate exposure variable was subdivided into three categories: (1) watched all of TV version; (2) watched some of TV version; (3) not exposed. Since specific hypotheses were proposed for the relationship of debate exposure to social stress and voting-choice certainty, we shall deal with them first.

Effect of Social Stress and Certainty of Voting Choice

As Table II indicates, the data do not support either of the

TABLE II

Relations of Certainty of Voting Choice and Social Stress to Voting Intent

Subgroup	No. In Subgroup	% Non-viewers	Rank Predicted	Order Obtained
Stress-Certain	29	31%	1	2
Stress-Not Certain	14	57	2.5	1
Non-stress-Certain	66	20	2.5	4
Non-stress-Not Certain	14	29	4	3
Others-Certain	23	17	..	..
Others-Not Certain	24	25	..	..
Stress	43	35	1	1
Non-Stress	80	21	2	2
Others	47	21	..	..
Certain	115	23	1	2
Not Certain	55	29	2	1
Total	170	25%	..	..

two hypotheses. The social stress difference is in the predicted direction with more stress group members not watching the program

their non-stress counterparts (35% nonviewers in the *stress* group to 21% in the *non-stress* group) but the difference is too small to be significant. The voting-choice certainty results are not in the predicted direction. We predicted that more of the *certain* group (persons who had definitely decided for whom to vote) would not watch the program than would members of the *not certain* group. The reverse was true. Only 23% of the *certain* group *did not watch* some or all of the debate while 29% of the *not certain* group did not view the program. This difference approaches, but does not quite reach, the required probability level for significance.

Other Variables

With respect to the other variables, more men did not watch the program than women (27% male non-viewers to 23% female); and more Democrats than Republicans (also 27% to 23) didn't watch the debate. However, as previously mentioned, both of these differences are too small to be significant.

The variables which were significantly related to debate exposure were social position (and its two components—education and occupation); religious affiliation and the belief that religion was the most important issue in the campaign. We will discuss them one at a time.

As Table III indicates, the lower a person's social position, the more likely that he did not watch any of the debate. As one would expect, our occupational and educational breakdowns show a similar relationship. Viewing decreases as you go down the occupational and the educational scale. Also note that "tuning out" is related to education but not to occupation. If you compare the viewed "all" to the viewed "some" columns you see that the higher a person's educational level the more likely that he watched the whole program.

The relationship between religion and debate exposure is listed in Table IV. Ninety-six per cent of the Catholics and 94% of the "others" in our sample watched the debate while only 68% of the Protestants tuned in. In addition, only 42% of the Protestants watched the entire program. Range test results indicate that the

TABLE III

Relationship of Social Position, Education and Occupation to Debate Exposure

	% Who Viewed				
Social Position	**All**	**Some**	**All + Some**	**% Non-viewers**	**No. Subjects**
Upper Class	71%	19%	(90%)	10%	(21)
Upper Middle	85	15	(100)	00	(13)
Lower Middle	46	30	(77)	23	(56)
Upper Lower	53	21	(74)	26	(47)
Lower Lower	21	33	(55)	45	(33)
Education					
College Grad	66%	22%	(88%)	12%	(41)
Some College	76	17	(88)	12	(17)
High School Grad	45	25	(70)	30	(67)
Some High School	32	40	(72)	28	(25)
8 or Less Years	30	30	(60)	40	(20)
Occupation					
Prof. and Mgr.	67%	22%	(89%)	11%	(63)
Cler. and Sales	40	33	(73)	27	(30)
Craftsmen & Foremen	35	22	(68)	32	(31)
Others	41	22	(63)	37	(46)
Totals (%)	49%	26%	(75%)	25%	....
Totals (N)	(84)	(44)	(128)	(42)	(170)

Catholic-Protestant difference on viewing vs. non-viewers is significant (.01).

The third significant difference was obtained fortuitously. During the pre-debate interview, subjects were asked, "What do you think will be the most important issue of the Presidential campaign?" Thirty-five of them answered "religion." Fourteen of the 35 (40%) did not watch the debate at all and 7 (20%) tuned out. If we take all three levels of debate exposure into account, the relationship approaches but does not quite reach the .05 level of significance. However, if we dichotomize (Exposed-Not Exposed), the relationship is significant (.02).

Summary and Discussion

Two hypotheses derivable from Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory were proposed to predict who would and who would

not watch the First Nixon-Kennedy television debate. It was hypothesized that persons in a non-stress situation would be more likely to watch than persons in a stress situation. It was also hypothesized that persons *not* absolutely certain for whom they would vote would be more likely to watch the debate than persons who had made up their minds.

The hypotheses were tested on a sample of 170 registered voters in the Lansing-East Lansing area who were interviewed —over the phone—before and after the September 26 debate. The differences were too small to be significant.

TABLE IV

Relationship of Religion to Debate Exposure

	% Who Viewed				
Religion	**All**	**Some**	**All + Some**	**% Non-viewers**	**No. Subjects**
Protestants	42%	26%	68%	32%	(126)
Catholics	69	27	96	4	(26)
Others	72	22	94	6	(18)
Totals (%)	49%	26%	75%	25%	.....
Totals (N)	(84)	(44)	(128)	(42)	(170)

TABLE V

Relationship of Belief that "Religion is the Most Important Issue in Campaign" to Debate Exposure*

	% Who Viewed				
Belief	**All**	**Some**	**All + Some**	**% Non-viewers**	**No. Subjects**
Religion Mentioned	40%	20%	60%	40%	(35)
Religion Not Mentioned	52	27	79	21	(135)
Totals (%)	49%	26%	75%	25%	.....
Totals (N)	(84)	(44)	(128)	(42)	(170)

*Subjects were asked "what do you think will be the most important issue of the Presidential campaign?" In the above table, those who answered "religion" are coded as "religion mentioned"; all others are coded as "religion not mentioned."

One possible interpretation of these results is that the "novelty" of the situation was so great that it tended to wash out differences produced by other variables. The extremely high proportion of viewers in our sample (75 percent) lends some support to this possibility but other evidence tends to refute it. For one thing, in spite of the small proportion of non-viewers, viewing was related to three variables—social position, religion and the belief that religion was the most important issue in the campaign. The social position relationship was approximately linear with a higher proportion of upper and middle class family members watching the program than lower class family members. With respect to religion, 96% of the Catholics in our sample watched the debate. Only 68 percent of the Protestants tuned in. This difference was significant (.01). And, finally, more people who thought religion was the most important issue in the campaign avoided the debate than any other single group.

Thus the debate "avoiders" appear to have been lower class Protestants who felt that religion was the major issue in the campaign. Social stress and certainty of voting choice—as defined in this study—were not important variables.

Footnotes

[1]According to a U.S. Census Bureau report, *Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1957* (1960), the closest previous popular vote was cast during the 1884 Cleveland-Blaine election. Cleveland obtained 48.5 percent and Blaine 48.2 percent of the popular vote. In this election the popular vote was 49.7 for Kennedy and 49.6 for Nixon. The U.S. Census Bureau lists the popular vote for 34 elections from 1824 to 1956. In 13 of these the winner failed to receive a majority of the popular vote. Twentieth century "minority" presidents were Wilson (1912 and 1916) and Truman (1948).

[2]Hollingshead, August B., *The Two Factor Index of Social Position.* Paper circulated privately.

[3]Festinger, Leon. *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance.* Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Company, 1957.

[4]All subjects were asked the following question: "For whom do you plan to vote in the national election for president: Nixon, the Republican, or Kennedy, the Democrat? (a) IF A DEFINITE ANSWER IS GIVEN (EITHER PARTY OR MAN) ASK: Are you positive about this, or do you think that between now and election day you might decide to vote the other way? (b) IF ANSWER WAS "UNDECIDED" OR "DON'T KNOW," ASK: Do you lean toward the Republican or the Democratic candidate for President? Answers were coded in terms of the following seven categories: (1) Nixon, positive; (2) Nixon, uncertain; (3) lean Republican; (4) undecided, don't know, refused,

etc.,; (5) lean Democrat; (6) Kennedy, uncertain; (7) Kennedy, positive. For the purpose of the *Voting Choice* analysis, people who answered (1) or (7) were classified as being *certain* and those who answered (2) through (6) were classified as being *uncertain.*

[5]This study is part of a two-year study of panel mortality and changes in voting preferences conducted by the Communications Research Center and the Bureau of Social and Political Research of Michigan State University. The subjects were interviewed three times during the 1958 state and local elections. Some 203 interviews were obtained during the pre-debate interviews in 1960, and 172 were obtained on the second, post-debate, interview. There were 19 "refusals." In addition two cases were dropped because of various "interviewer errors," leaving a useable N of 170.

[6]Cochran, W. G., Some methods for strengthening the common X^2 tests. *Biometrics*, 1954, *10*, 417-451.

[7]Ryan, Thomas A., Multiple comparisons in psychological research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 1959, *56*, 26-47.

[8]Donovan, Robert J., Party acts to correct TV picture of Nixon. *New York Herald Tribune*, 128 (Oct. 5, 1960), 1.

The listing of all masters' and doctoral theses and dissertations in the field of broadcasting is to be found only in the JOURNAL OF BROADCASTING. The last such list, compiled by Franklin Knower, appeared in Volume IV, Number 1.

Dr. Knower is currently engaged in updating this list. To insure a high standard of accuracy and completeness, your help is needed. Each academic reader of the JOURNAL is urged to send Professor Knower (Department of Speech, Ohio State University, Columbus 10, Ohio) the full citation for any theses or dissertations that may have been overlooked in previous compilations, or have been completed since 1958, regardless of department or school issuing the degree. It is hoped to publish this list in the Fall issue.

"Listening In," Our New National Pastime

Have you tried "DX-ing" (attempting to receive and identify distant stations) on the AM broadcast band recently? With more than 3,600 stations on the air, the tower lights of many a station reach further than its listenable signal. For those who have forgotten what reception used to be like, we include the following pages originally published in the Review of Reviews, *January, 1924.*

• • •

IT would be a commonplace remark to say that when wireless telephoning became practical, about the year 1914, no one dreamed that its use would ever be general or popular. Even two years ago few enthusiasts would have dared to assert that they would live to see hundreds of thousands of persons interested in radio-telephony. The rapidity with which the thing has spread has possibly not been equalled in all the centuries of human progress.

Americans are a home-loving people. When the day's work is done, and the evening meal is over, the natural desire is to remain at home; one goes out merely to seek entertainment, recreation, and education which could not otherwise be had. There, perhaps, lies the secret of radio; for enterprising "broadcasters" bring to the ear, every hour and every day, wholly without cost to the "listener-in," a most amazing variety of entertainment and instruction.

These broadcasting stations are operated by manufacturers of radio supplies, who are repaid by the creation of a boom market for sets and parts; by newspapers and department stores, which see an advertising value in the new fad; and by amateur enthusiasts or experimenters. No one knows how many thousand persons each night are informed, before and after a musical selection or a talk, that "This is WSB, the Atlanta *Journal*"; or "This is WHB, the Sweeney Automobile School, Kansas City"; or "This is WOO, John Wanamaker, Philadelphia"; or "This is WDAP, the Drake Hotel, Chicago." One station in Iowa mailed printed programs

weekly until 30,000 listeners had asked for them; and then it quit issuing printed programs.

Who are these radio fans? Strange to say, they are not mechanics, even though every set requires a certain amount of installation and most sets are either home-made or home-assembled. Among the menfolk at an office with which the writer is familiar one in every three has a radio outfit. All were more or less home-made, no two are in any way alike, and every one gives satisfaction. Two of them regularly pick up broadcasting stations a thousand miles away. The most expensive set in the group cost less than $75, including telephone receivers and batteries.

Even an outfit of limited range will bring to one's sitting-room or fireside—through the turning of a knob or two, or the sliding of a cylinder—a variety of entertainment and instruction such as he could not himself have planned. Vocal and instrumental selections there are aplenty, as clear as though the artists were in the next room—solos, duets, quartettes, whole choruses, symphonies, and even operas. But besides those offerings the radio fan "gets" varsity football or baseball games and professional prizefights, described from field or ringside; he hears church services from beginning to end; he listens to a Shakespeare reading or to a speech. Last month General Pershing spoke one evening to a radio audience from St. Louis; it is entirely probable that his voice carried to every State in the Union. The musical selections of WJZ, from Newark, N. J., have been heard in England.

There are now more than 500 broadcasting stations, scattered all over this country. The amateur listener is unfortunate, indeed, who can not hear any one that he chooses among half a dozen, while the more patient or skillful person can pick up one after another a score of stations. In and around New York, during any evening, a hundred-foot length of copper wire in one's backyard will receive messages sent out into the air from Boston, Schenectady, Newark, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Baltimore, Atlanta, Louisville, Indianapolis, Chicago, Davenport, Kansas City, and St. Louis. And a modest companion outfit indoors will permit the radio fan to select, one at a time, the station or the message he wishes to hear.

The Development of Broadcasting Education in Institutions of Higher Education

BY HAROLD NIVEN

For the past several years the JOURNAL *has published listings of the curricular offerings of the more than a hundred schools offering a degree with a major in broadcasting. The present report offers a comparison between broadcasting education in 1950 and broadcasting education in 1960. It is based on data gathered by questionnaires sent to the 101 schools offering a major undergraduate program in broadcasting. Unfortunately only 52 of these schools responded to the inquiry.*

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• • •

THE year 1960 marked the end of three decades of broadcasting education in American colleges and universities. From a beginning of a "course in radio" offered by a college or university, broadcasting education has developed to a point where it is a recognized curricular discipline with course offerings leading to undergraduate and graduate degrees by departments of Radio-Television or divisions of Radio-Television within departments of instruction.

The early nineteen-thirties found radio courses being taught in such departments as Speech and English, some ten years after the granting of the first radio license. The majority of the schools that presently offered a major in broadcasting had added radio courses in the early forties to the curricular offerings of such departments as Speech, Drama, Journalism, English, Music, Business Administration and Schools of Fine Arts.

By the late forties, television had started to become an important factor as a broadcasting medium. Universities and colleges were quick to respond, and as television grew, courses in this area were added to the broadcasting curricula. By the mid-fifties schools that offered the degree in broadcasting had included courses in television as an important part of broadcasting instruction.

The degree in broadcasting, as it is known today, was established by the mid-thirties in a few schools. By the end of the forties approximately 75 schools offered a degree in broadcasting and by the end of the fifties the number had grown to over 100 colleges and universities.

Graduate instruction in broadcasting was first offered at the master's degree level in 1931 and at the doctoral level in 1939. Today, 50 colleges and universities offer a master's program in radio-television and fifteen schools have doctoral programs.

While the teaching of radio and television is a relatively new discipline in colleges and universities, it is nonetheless established and recognized as an area of instruction with undergraduate and graduate degrees in the major institutions of higher education in America today.

In an effort to determine what changes have taken place in broadcasting education, the schools that offer degrees in broadcasting were asked to report on the establishment and development of broadcasting education at their institutions. Specific information was requested for the time period of 1950 to 1960: degrees offered during the past ten years, curriculum changes, the employment of graduates by the industry, and a statement of the curriculum or teaching philosophy of the radio-television instructional area or department and the changes in this philosophy as the broadcasting education program grew and developed. Fifty-two out of the 101 schools contacted responded with at least some information. In some cases, complete information was not available.

The 52 schools participating in the study offer degrees in broadcasting in 53 departments. The breakdown is as follows: Speech Departments, 24; Radio-Television or Telecommunication

Departments, 16; Journalism Schools or Departments, 6; Communication Schools or Departments, 4; and universities offering degrees within an interdepartmental structure, 3.

Forty-seven schools reported information regarding changes in departments or divisions where broadcast instruction is offered. Of this total 33 schools reported no change in departments where radio-television courses are offered. Six schools reported the consolidation of several departments into one department or school where radio-television is offered. The result of this consolidation was the formation of separate Radio-Television Departments, an interdivisional committee supervising the broadcasting major, or Divisions of Radio-Television in Schools of Journalism and Communication. Three schools changed from English Departments, two schools from Journalism Departments, one school from a Dramatic Arts Department and one from a School of Fine Arts. These changes resulted in separate departments of Radio-Television, divisions of Radio-Television in Speech Departments or Schools of Communication. One school made a move from a Speech Department to a Radio-Television Department and back to a Speech Department as a Division of Radio-Television.

The year 1929 was the first year that a course in radio was reported. Twenty-two schools began broadcasting instruction in the thirties, 18 schools in the forties and eight in the fifties. Table I reports when instruction and degree programs began for the 52 schools reporting.

One school reported that a degree with a major in radio was first offered in 1931. Forty-nine colleges and universities were able to furnish the date they began to offer degrees. The thirties found eight schools offering the bachelor's degree, two schools offering the master's degree and two schools offering a Ph.D. In the forties 22 additional schools began to offer an undergraduate degree, 13 schools the master's degree; the Ph.D. was offered by two schools. During the fifties, 20 schools joined the ranks of those schools already offering a bachelor's degree, 13 schools began to offer the master's degree also, and five additional schools offered the Ph.D.

TABLE I

Development of Broadcasting Instruction in 52 Colleges and Universities

College or University	Department	Instruction Began	TV Began	Bachelor's Began	Master's Began	Ph.D. Began
Alabama, University	Radio-TV	1937	1948	1943	1943	1943
Arizona State University	Mass Communications	1950	1952	1954		
Arkansas State College	Radio-Journ.-Ptg.	1953		1954		
Baylor University	Speech-Radio	1936	1950	1944	1950	
Bowling Green State Univ.	Speech	1939	1960	1942		
Brigham Young University	Speech		1953	1932	1940	
Central Michigan Univ.	Speech	1944	1960	1960		
Columbia University	Dramatic Arts	1937	1944	1953	1959	
Drake University	Journalism	1934	1952	1950		
Duquesne University	Journalism	1945	1954	1949		
Florida State University	Interdivisional	1949	1951	1958		
University of Houston	Radio-TV	1947	1950	1950	1951	
Idaho, University of	Communications	1950	1955	1955		
University of Illinois	Radio-TV (Comm. Sch.)	1939	1953	1946	1954	
Iowa State University	Tech. Journalism	1936	1950	1946		
State University of Iowa	Radio-TV-Film	1930	1950	1933	1935	1939
Indiana University	Radio-TV	1940	1950	1950	1951	
Ithaca College	Radio-TV	1943	1952	1947		
Kansas State University	Speech	1933	1950	1940	1951	
University of Kentucky	Radio Arts	1947	1952	1947	1947	
Marquette University	Radio-TV	1936	1952	1940		
Maryland, University of	Speech-Dramatic Art	1938	1957	1938		
Massachusetts, University of	Speech	1952	1957	1954		

Minnesota, University of	Speech	1938	1952	1944	1948	1951
University of Missouri	Speech & Journalism	1942	1949	1948	1954	1954
Montana State College	Film-TV	1951	1954	1958		
Montana State University	Journalism		1958	1958		
Nebraska, University of	Speech-Dramatic Art	1938	1952	1942	1948	
Univ. of North Carolina	RTV-Motion Pictures	1941	1950	1947	1954	
Ohio State University	Speech	1937	1953	1947	1947	1947
Ohio University	Radio-TV	1938	1955	1946	1946	
University of Oklahoma	Interdepartmental	1935	1945	1945	1945	
Pacific University	Speech	1938	1957	1943		
Pennsylvania State Univ.	Speech	1941	1952		1950	
St. Norbert College	Speech	1953	1953	1959		
San Diego State College	Speech Arts	1946	1950	1957	1958	
Seton Hall University	Communication Arts	1949	1949	1959		
Univ. of Southern California	Telecommunications	1929	1946	1946	1948	1956
Southern Illinois Univ.	Radio-TV	1950	1955	1950		
Stanford University	Speech & Drama	1942	1948	1950	1954	
Syracuse University	TV-Radio	1931	1950	1937	1948	1953
Temple University	TV-Radio	1948	1949	1948	1950	
Tennessee, University of	Broadcast Services	1947	1955	1953		
Texas Christian Univ.	Radio-TV	1946	1949	1948	1949	
Texas Technical College	Speech	1952	1950	1950		
Utah State University	Speech	1936	1956	1949	1949	
University of Virginia	Speech & Drama	1947	1952	1952		
Washington State Univ.	Speech	1929	1953	1936		
Washington, University of	Communications	1934	1948	1939	1958	
Wayne State University	Broadcast Division	1935	1948	1939	1940	1955
West Virginia University	Speech	1943				
University of Wisconsin	Speech	1931		1931	1931	1939

Forty-five schools reported information concerning the approximate number of degrees granted during the past ten years. There were 4,672 Bachelor's degrees, 674 Master's degrees, and 69 Ph.D.'s. Thirty-two schools were able to furnish information on a year-by-year basis on number and types of degrees granted from 1950 through 1960, which is reported in Table II.

TABLE II

Radio-Television Degrees Granted by 32 Colleges and Universities, 1950-1960

School Year	Degree		
	Bachelors	Masters	Doctorate
1950-51	243	26	2
1951-52	257	27	2
1952-53	258	27	3
1953-54	257	19	4
1954-55	273	39	5
1955-56	363	29	2
1956-57	400	32	4
1957-58	432	42	9
1958-59	447	49	5
1959-60	404	32	2
TOTALS	3,334	322	38

Forty-one schools reported they employed 105 full-time teachers of radio-television courses and 124 part-time teachers, those who devote half-time or less to the instruction of broadcasting subjects. During the past ten years there has been an increase of 49 full-time teachers and 46 part-time teachers in these institutions, an average of a little more than one addition per school in each classification during this period.

At the end of thirty years of broadcast education, 44 schools reported a total offering of 655 radio-television courses ranging from five courses at one college to 43 courses at another. In the period from 1950 to 1960, 34 schools have added a total of 230 broadcasting courses to their curricula and six schools have decreased their course offering by 45 courses. There was no change in the case of four schools. Thirty-four schools reported the addition of 151 television courses to their curricula as part of the total

courses added during the past ten years. More specific information in curriculum expansion on the part of 50 schools is as follows: television, 34 schools; law and regulation, 5 schools; educational television, 2 schools; radio-television news, 1 school; and 8 schools reporting expansion in all areas of the broadcasting instruction.

When asked to report significant changes in the broadcast area during the past ten years, information was furnished regarding such matters as facilities, curriculum revision and program production. Table III details some of this information.

TABLE III

Significant Changes by 36 Schools, 1950-1960

	Change	No. of Schools
Acquired Radio-Television Facilities		17
Radio Station	11	
Television Station	8	
Closed Circuit TV	5	
Film	3	
Wired Wireless	2	
Curriculum Revision		14
Program Production		6
Administrative Department		2
Research Centers		2
Other		4

Philosophies

Colleges and universities granting a broadcasting degree were asked to state, as succinctly as possible, the curriculum or teaching philosophy of their radio-television instructional area or department and indicate if there had been any change of philosophy during the past ten years. Forty-one schools responded and their philosophy of broadcasting instruction was grouped into three broad classifications: Liberal, Practical, and Liberal-Professional.

Five schools were classified as belonging to the Liberal Philosophy, which was typified as primarily a liberal arts education

with an introduction to the field of broadcasting. Examples of this philosophy, as expressed by two universities, were:

> Our endeavor is not to train men specifically for the broadcasting industry, but to provide education which will result in graduates capable of communicating effectively, and then to assist them to the fullest if they do desire a career in mass media or graduate study in mass media.

> At present [this] university places its emphasis in the Arts on graduate programs. It welcomes students with a wide general education rather than those with undergraduate concentration on studio courses. The courses in television-radio-film seek to develop insight into the role of these media in our society, to foster informed use of them, and to encourage creative experimentation.

The Practical Philosophy, subscribed to by four schools, is one that is primarily oriented toward "complete" professional training for employment. One college furnished the following typical example:

> We attempt to give students a broad general background of radio with emphasis on small radio operation. They are ready on graduation to go into a small station and fit into the picture without additional training.

Thirty-two schools reported philosophies that were classified as a Liberal-Professional Philosophy— a broad liberal arts background plus professional training for "first job skills" and a basic knowledge of the industry. Typical examples are:

> Basically, our training objective in the broadcasting program is the graduation of students with a well-rounded general education, a fundamental understanding of broadcasting as a business and as a social force, and the development of appropriate skills, work habits and capacities conducive to success in a lifetime career in broadcasting or closely related fields.

> Today's broadcaster must be a thoughtful person. To speak to people through radio and television requires a knowledge of the people to whom one wishes to speak and an understanding of the world in which we live. Therefore, the curriculum at [this university] is designed to offer more than mere training in techniques. Students must acquire a solid background in the social sciences and the humanities. At the same time, they gain professional competence in their chosen field from their professional courses in broadcasting.

> The primary function of our undergraduate work is the liberal education of our students and just enough professional work to help them to get and hold their first job. The primary function of our doctoral program is to turn out teacher-scholars. We are somewhat ambivalent on the MA level, but the emphasis tends to be on the turning out of teachers.
>
> Since professional broadcasting education is in a separate department of the College of Arts and Sciences, it must necessarily fit within the bounds of the broad liberal arts concept. We feel that a broad liberal arts background combined with courses in broadcasting will pave the way of the student toward success in the industry. We insist upon the maximum academic experience directed towards realization of the responsibilities; a minimal experience in skills or technique.

Finally, a teaching philosophy from a school where work is offered as a division of a department in a College of Arts and Sciences that has developed and changed with the advent of television, the changing complexion of the industry and studies pointing up the vocational patterns of radio-television graduates. In addition to the broad liberal arts background the following direction is given to the broadcasting curriculum:

> Obviously, during the period [the past ten years], television has been given increased attention—both by addition of new writing, production and content courses dealing solely with television, and by modification of nearly all of our other courses (except radio production and radio lab work) to give at least as great attention, and in most cases more, to television as compared with radio. Second, we have gradually moved further and further in the direction of trying to give our major students a broad understanding of the institution of broadcasting, and less and less attention to studio production, microphone speech, and to writing for radio and television. The reasons: first we find that unlike the situation ten years ago, a majority of our graduates (completing undergraduate degrees) go into fields ranging from sales service, to promotion; that more and more have worked out of studio-type positions into administrative or executive positions—and we can't provide 'specific' training for the wide variety of fields relating to broadcasting into which our graduates who go into industry tend to work. Third, a study made some four years ago showed that nearly half of all our radio-telvision undergraduate majors do not remain permanently in broadcasting. This has caused us even more than previously (through the trend started before the study was made) to attempt so to shape every course we offer as to make is have some general values that will

> carry over into non-broadcasting types of work. In many situations, this is difficult—but we're increasingly making the effort. Fourth, some at least of our courses have been shaped increasingly into the pattern of 'service courses' for students doing major work in fields other than broadcasting.

Of the 41 schools reporting a teaching philosophy, seventeen made no indication of a change in philosophy during the past ten years; nine schools reported there had been a slow evolution toward a liberal-professional type of philosophy. Six schools indicated they have made recent changes and five schools reported they were beginning to make a change embracing a philosophy that includes a liberal arts background and limited professional training. Five schools stated that there had been no change at all in their philosophy of broadcasting instruction since radio-television courses had been offered by the school. These were either schools with a liberal or liberal-professional teaching philosophy.

It is appropriate to conclude this investigation of the development of broadcasting education with a report on the students who have majored in radio-television and assumed jobs in the broadcasting industry. Forty-one schools reported they have kept track of their graduates who were employed in some phase of broadcasting after graduation. They were also able to furnish information on the percentage of this number who have remained in broadcasting since their graduation.

The percentage figure of students employed in broadcasting ranges from 20 per cent to 100 per cent. The median figure of students employed is 70 per cent for all schools. These schools also reported that 50 per cent (the median figure for all schools) of their graduates remain employed by the broadcasting industry. This figure ranges from 15 per cent to 85 per cent.

These employment figures suggest areas for further investigation and tend to explain in part the adoption of the Liberal-Professional philosophy of broadcasting education adopted by the majority of schools offering degrees in radio-television.

A World Bibliography of Selected Periodicals on Broadcasting

BY KENNETH HARWOOD

Dr. Kenneth Harwood is Professor and Head of the Department of Telecommunications at the University of Southern California.

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THIS bibliography is presented in hope that it may help the space-age broadcaster and the broadcast researcher to be stimulated by valuable ideas from abroad, to develop libraries of periodical literature, and to encourage further cooperation among librarians. Research in the quickly-changing field of broadcasting often is based upon late findings from periodicals; and although a search of world-wide literature is a necessary precursor to each major research, the review of literature may omit important recent findings because periodicals are unavailable or unknown.

The selection is designed to show the variety of periodical literature by kind of publication, geography, and language. Perhaps a third of all germane entries are listed. Technical journals, program guides, scholarly publications, trade journals, yearbooks, and other periodicals that contain reports on broadcasting are represented. Chief regions of the world are set forth by nation, illustrating roughly the relative range in kinds and numbers of periodicals among the regions and within each. A glance at these pages reveals the languages that are most useful to readers of the world literature of broadcasting.

The principal source of the bibliography is the list of periodicals received by the administrative office of the European Broadcasting Union in Geneva or the technical center of the Union in Brussels.[1] Main card catalogues of several major libraries in the United States yield numerous entries,[2] as do recent books of bibliography.[3] The maker of this bibliography is responsible for all

errors that are unattributed to his sources. Suggested corrections, additions, deletions, and substitutions are welcomed warmly.

Periodicals are listed by country of publication, except that periodicals of international organizations are listed at the beginning of the bibliography. A cross-index of a few publications that might be especially difficult to find by country appears at the end of the list of periodicals of international organizations. Titles of periodicals appear to the left, while most names of publishing organizations and addresses appear to the right. If no address is listed with a periodical, its mailing address is that of the official broadcasting organization which is italicized and centered above it.

Names of some periodicals are followed by italicized capital letters in parentheses, if a title reveals neither the main language of publication nor simultaneous publication in more than one language. The key to this code follows:

C. Chinese	*F.* French	*R.* Russian
E. English	*G.* German	*S.* Spanish

International Organizations

Council of Europe

Mitteilungen des Europarats	Direction de l'Information, 5, rue des Palais, Strasbourg, France

International Labor Organization

Bulletin Officiel	154 rue de Lausanne, Geneva, Switzerland
Revue internationale du Travail	
Informations sociales	
Nouvelles du B.I.T.	

International Telecommunication Union

Journal des Télécommunications *(E.F.S.)*	Palais Wilson, Geneva, Switzerland
Notifications *(E.F.)*	
Liste des indicatifs d'appel	
Liste des stations de contrôle international des emissions	

Nomenclature des stations de radiodiffusion	
Nomenclature des stations effectuant des services spéciaux	
Répertoire des Fréquences	
Résumé des renseignments provenant du contrôle des émissions reçues par l'I.F.R.B.	

United Nations

(See also associated agencies)

Revue des Nations Unies	26, Avenue de Ségur, Paris 7e, France
Liste mensuelle des articles sélectionnes *(E.F.)*	Bibliothèque des Nations Unies, Geneva, Switzerland
Liste mensuelle d'ouvrages catalogués à la Bibliothèque *(E.F.)*	Bibliothèque des Nations Unies, Geneva, Switzerland
Programme des Réunions	Palais des Nations, Geneva, Switzerland

UNESCO

Bulletin du Droit d'Auteur *(E.F.)*	7, Place de Fontenoy, Paris 7e, France
Chronique de l'UNESCO *(E.F.)*	
Communiqué UNESCO	
Le Courrier	
Etudes et Documents d'Education *(E.F.)*	
Etudes et Documents d'Information *(E.F.)*	
Fundamental Adult Education *(E.F.)*	
Informations UNESCO *(E.F.)*	
Orient Occident *(E.F.)*	
Revue analytique de l'Education *(E.F.)*	
Zone Aride *(E.F.)*	

World Health Organization

Etudes et Problèmes	Palais des Nations, Geneva, Switzerland
Santé du Monde *(E.F.)*	
Presse	

Periodicals of Other International Organizations

Revue de Television et de Radio *(E.F.S.)*	Association catholique internationale pour la Radiodiffusion et la Télévision (U.N.D.A.), Case Postale 211, Fribourg, Switzerland
UNDA Nouvelles	
Bulletin du BIEM	Bureau International de l'Edition Mécanique, 28, rue Ballu, Paris 9e, France
Le Droit d'Auteur	Bureau international pour la Protection des Oeuvres littéraires et artistiques, Helvetiastrasse 7, Bern, Switzerland
La Propriété Industrielle	Bureau international pour la Protection de la Propriété industrielle, Helvetiastrasse 7, Bern, Switzerland
Bulletin	Centre européen de la Culture, Villa Moynier, 122, rue de Lausanne, Geneva, Switzerland
ICC News	Chambre de Commerce Internationale, 38, Cours Albert 1er, Paris 8e, France
Bulletin du Comité international olympique	Comité international olympique, Mon Repos, Lausanne, Switzerland
Inter-Auteurs	Confédération internationale des Sociétés d' Auteurs et de Composeturs (C.I.S.A.C.), 11, rue Keppler, Paris 16e, France
Bulletin	Conseil international des Femmes, Frankengasse 3, Zurich 1, Switzerland
Ecrans du Monde	Conseil international du Cinéma et de la Television, 26, Avenue de Ségur, Paris 7e, France
Documentation	Fédération international des Chasseurs de Son, Secrêtariat général de la FICS, 4, avenue de la Gare, Neuchâtel, Switzerland
Bulletin	International Folk Music Council, 35, Princess Court, Queensway, London W. 2, United Kingdom
Journal	
Le Monde et la Croix-Rouge *(E.F.)*	Ligue des Sociétés de la Croix Rouge, 40, rue du 31 Décembre, Geneva, Switzerland
Radiodiffusion et Télévision OIRT *(C.E.F.R.)*	Organisation international de Radiodiffusion et Télévision (O.I.R.T.), Liebknechtova 15, Praha 16, Czechoslovakia

Catalogue des Emissions destinées aux échanges *(E.F.)*	Same as above
Informations O.I.R.T. *(E.F.)*	Same as above
O.F.I.-Revue de l'orientation à la fonction internationale	Orientations Internationales, Boîte Postale 94, Paris 16e, France
Associations *(E.F.)*	Union des Associations internationales, Palais d'Egmont, 8, Pl. du Petit-Sablon, Brussels, Belgium
E.B.U. Review, Part A, Technical *(E.F.)*	Union Européenne de Radiodiffusion (E.B.U.), 1, rue de Varembé, Geneva, Switzerland
E.B.U. Review, Part B, General and Legal *(E.F.)*	Same as above
Revue internationale de l'Enfance *(E.F.)*	Union internationale de Protection de l'Enfance (U.I.P.E.), 1, rue de Varembé, Geneva, Switzerland
Informations	
Bulletin d'Informations *(E.F.)*	Union Radio Scientifique Internationale (U.R.S.I.), 7 Place Dance, Brussels, Belgium
The Christian Broadcaster	See U.S.A.
Gazette	See Netherlands
Internationales Handbuch für Rundfunk und Fernsehen	See Germany
World Radio Handbook	See Denmark

AFRICA

Portuguese East Africa

Radio Moçambique	Laurenço Marques

Rhodesia and Nyasaland

Federal Broadcasting Corporation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland
Salisbury

Programmes

Union of South Africa

South African Broadcasting Corporation
21, Rockridge Road, Parktown, Johannesburg

SABC Radio Bulletin
(E. & Africaans)

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Education Gazette	Cape Education Department, P.O. Box 13, Cape Town

United Arab Republic (Egypt)

Al Radio Misri	Cairo

NORTH AMERICA

Canada

Canadian Broadcasting Corporation
P.O. Box 806, Ottawa

Audience Research Bulletin	
CBS Press Service	CBS Press Service, Box 500, Terminal "A", Toronto
CBS Radio Canada	International Service, P. O. Box 6000, Montreal
CBC Times	354 Jarvis Street, Toronto 5
La Semaine à Radio-Canada	C.P. 6000, Montreal
La Voix du Canada	

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Canadian Broadcaster	R. G. Lewis & Co., Ltd., 219 Bay Street, Toronto 1
Canadian Sponsor	Canadian Sponsor, Ltd., 67 Yonge Street, Toronto
Radiomonde et Telemonde	8430 Casgrain, Montreal
Radiotime-Teletime	1500 St. Catherine Street, W. Montreal 25
Vision: The Canadian Television and Motion Picture Review	Reg Wilson Publications, 2533 Gerrad Street, E., Toronto 13

Cuba

Radiomania y Television	Habana

Mexico

Noticias: Boletin Mensual de Radio y TV	Bucareli 109, Mexico, D.F.
Radio TV Selecciones	Apartado Postal 20385, Mexico, D.F.
RCN Radio y TV	Vallarta 1, Mexico 1, D.F.
Tele-Guia	Ave. Juarez 64-1001, 1002, Mexico, D.F.

United States of America

Federal Communications Commission
Washington 25, D.C.

Annual Report	Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

Reports	Same as above
Statistics of the Communications Industry	Same as above

Periodicals of Other U.S. Government Organizations

Broadcasting Stations of the World	Foreign Broadcast Information Service, 2430 E St., N.W., Washington 25, D.C. (Available from Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.)
Radio Propagation	National Bureau of Standards, Department of Commerce, Washington 25, D.C.
Documents	Library of Congress, Washington 25, D.C.
Advance Release	United States Information Agency, 330 Independence Avenue, S.W., Washington 25, D.C.

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Audio	P.O. Box 629, Mineola, New York
Audio-Visual Communication Review	Dept. of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.
Bell System Technical Journal	American Telephone and Telegraph Company, 195 Broadway, New York 7, New York
Broadcast Engineering	P.O. Box 93, Kansas City 41, Missouri
Broadcasting	1735 De Sales Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.
Broadcast News	Radio Corporation of America, Broadcast and Television Equipment Division, Camden, New Jersey
Bulletin of the Copyright Society of the U.S.A.	New York University Law Center, 40 Washington Square South, New York 11, New York
The Christian Broadcaster	475 Riverside Drive, New York 27, New York
Communication Engineering	FM Company, 264 Main Street, Great Barrington, Massachusetts
Dial	International General Electric Co., 570 Lexington Avenue, New York 22, New York
Educational Research Bulletin Educational Research Monographs	Ohio State University, 1858 Neil Ave., Columbus 10, Ohio

Electrical Communication	International Telephone and Telegraph Corporation, 67 Broad St., New York 4, New York
Electronics	330 West 42nd Street, New York 18, New York
Electronic Age	Radio Corporation of America, Dept. of Information, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York
Electronic Industries	4515 Saul Road, Kensington, Maryland
Electronics World	M. O. Read, Publisher, 366 Madison Ave., New York 17, New York
Federal Communications Bar Journal	Federal Communications Bar Association, 1735 De Sales Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.
International Musician	39 Division Street, Newark 2, New Jersey
Journalism Quarterly	Association for Education in Journalism, School of Journalism, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minnesota
Journal of Broadcasting	Association for Professional Broadcasting Education, University of Southern California, University Park, Los Angeles 7, California
Journal of the Audio Engineering Society	Columbia University, 632 West 125th Street, New York, New York
Journal of the S.M.P.T.E.	Society of Motion Picture and Television Engineers, Editorial Office, 55 West 42nd Street, New York 36, New York
NAEB Journal	National Association of Educational Broadcasters, 119 Gregory Hall, Urbana, Illinois
NAFBRAT Quarterly	National Association for Better Radio and Television, 882 Victoria Avenue, Los Angeles 5, California
Proceedings of the Institute of Radio Engineers	Institute of Radio Engineers, 1 East 79th Street, New York 21, New York
Public Opinion Quarterly	American Association for Public Opinion Research, Box 486, Princeton, New Jersey

QST	American Radio Relay League, West Hartford 7, Connecticut
Radio Electronics	154 West 14th Street, New York 11, New York
Sponsor	40 East 49th Street, New York 17, New York
Telefilm Magazine	7071 Hollywood Boulevard, Hollywood 28, California
Television	444 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York
Television Digest	Managing Editor, Box 700, Radnor, Pennsylvania
TV Guide	Radnor, Pennsylvania
U.S. Radio	50 West 57th Street, New York 19, New York
Variety	154 West 46th Street, New York 36, New York

SOUTH AMERICA

Argentina

Direccion de Radiodifusion, Ministerio de Comunicaciones
Correo Central, 2° Piso, Local 220, Buenos Aires

Revista del Ministerio de Comunicaciones

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Mundo Radial	Rio de Janeiro 300, Buenos Aires
Radiofilm	Buenos Aires
Radiolandia	Avenida Roque Saenz Peña 1110, Buenos Aires
Radio y Television	Buenos Aires
Revista Telegrafica Electronica	Avenida Martin Garcia 653, Buenos Aires

Brazil

Revista Monitor de Radio e Televisao	Instituto Radio Tecnico Monitor, Rua dos Timbiras 263, Sao Paulo
Revista Radiotecnica: Electricidade, Televisao, Electronica, Radio	Sao Paulo

Chile

Radiomania	Santiago

Colombia

Departamento de Relaciones Publicas, Ministerio de Comunicaciones
Bogota, D.E.

Telepostal Colombiana

Peru

Boletin de Correos y Telecomunicaciones	Direccion General de los Ramos, Lima

Uruguay

Servicio Oficial de Difusion Radioelectrica
Montevideo

S.O.D.R.E.

ASIA

Ceylon

Radio Ceylon
Torrington Square, P.O. Box 574, Colombo

Radio Times

China (Mainland)

Radio *(C.)*	Peking

India

All India Radio
Broadcasting House, Parliament Street, New Delhi 1

External Services Schedules

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Journal of the Institution of Telecommunication Engineers	P.O. Box No. 481, Curzon Road, New Delhi
Radio Services	417 Lamington Road, Bombay 4
Radio Times of India	29 New Queen's Road, Bombay 4

Indonesia

The Voice of Indonesia	Radio Republik Indonesia, P.O. Box 7, Djakarta

Israel

Kol Israel, The Israel Broadcasting Service
P.O. Box 1082, Jerusalem

Weekly Journal

Japan

Nippon Hoso Kyokai (Japan Broadcasting Corporation)
2, 2-chome Uchisaiwai-cho, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

Radio Japan News

News from Japan — Embassy of Japan

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Journal of the Radio Research Laboratories	The Radio Research Laboratories, Ministry of Posts and Telecommunications, Kokubunij P.O., Tokyo
Review of the Electrical Communication Laboratory	Nippon Telegraph & Telephone Public Corporation, 1551 Kichijoji, Musashino-shi, Tokyo
SW-DX Guide	Japanese Short Wave Club, P.O. Box 29, Sendai

Thailand

Thai TV Mirror *(Thai)* — Bangkok

U.S.S.R. (See Europe)

EUROPE

Andorra

Radio Andorre
Boite Postale 7, Andorre-la-Vielle

Programmes

Austria

Oesterreichischer Rundfunk Ges.m.b.H.
Argentinierstrasse 30 a, Wien IV/50

Aus dem Programm

Pressedienst

Programmwoche

Radio Oesterreich

Schulfunk

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Das Elektron	Elektron Verlag, Graben 9, Linz/D
Funk und Film	Wien
Oesterreichische Autorenzeitung	Baumannstrasse 8, Wien III
Oesterreichische Blätter für gewerblichen Rechtsschutz und Urheberrecht	Schwarzenbergplatz 2, Wien I
Radio Wien	Wien

Belgium

Radiodiffusion-Télévision Belge
18, Place Eugène Flagey, Bruxelles

Micro Magazine	
De Radio- en Televisie Week	
Vlaamse Televisie, Pers en Publiek	
Radio Scolaire	Ministère de l'Instruction publique, Bruxelles
Schoolradio	Ministerie van Openbaar Ondervijs, Hoofdbestuur, Wetstraat 155, Bruxelles

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Bulletin d'Electroacoustique	Laboratoire d'Electroacoustique, Institut Montéfiore, 33 rue St. Gilles, Liège
Bulletin de la Société belge des Electriciens	1, Place du Trône, Bruxelles
C.C.R.M. Rapports mensuels	97, Av. du Prince d'Orange, Uccle-Bruxelles
Evolution Electronique	Publications J. J. Campe, 3 Av. des Pinsons, Bruxelles 15
Industrie et Sciences	Association des Ingénieurs techniciens, 41, Bd. Jamar, Bruxelles
Q.S.O.	Union Belge des Amateurs-Emetteurs, A.S.B.L., 10, Av. Le Marinel, Bruxelles IV
Radio et Télévision	40, rue Metsys, Bruxelles
La Radio Electronique professionnelle belge	Centre International Rogier, Bureau 812, Bruxelles 1
Radio-Television professionelle belge	Societe Belge d'Editions Professionelle, Av. Charles Woeste 44, Bruxelles
Radioweek	Bruxelles
Regulation-Measure News Letter	56, rue des Bollandistes, Bruxelles
Revue de Droit intellectuel	63, Av. de la Toison d'Or, Bruxelles
Revue H.F.	55, rue Defacqz, Bruxelles (XL)
Revue M.B.L.E.	80, rue des Deux Gares, Bruxelles
T.V.	Société d'Etude et d'Expansion de la Télévision, 10, rue de Seraing, Liège

Bulgaria

La Bulgarie d' Aujourd'hui *(E.F.)*	1, rue Levsky, Sofia
Radio	Sofia

Radio Pregled	Sofia
Radio i Televiziia	Tsentralen Komitet Dobrovolna Organizatsiia Na Sudiestvie Na Otbranata, Ministersvo Na Poshtite, Telegrafite, Telephonite, i Radioto, Sofia

Czechoslovakia

Czechoslovak Broadcasting
Stalinova 46, Praha

Ceskoslovensky Rozhlas e Televisie

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Reklama	Praha
Slaboproudy Obzor	Krakovska 8, Praha II

Denmark

Statsradiofonien
Radiohuset, Rosenorns Allé 22, Kobenhavn V

Programmes

Skoleradio

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Radio Populaer	Kobenhavn
Radio Ekko	Kobenhavn
Teleteknik	Post og telegrafvaesenet, Valkendorfsgade 9, Kobenhavn K
World Radio Handbook *(E.)*	Lindorffsallé 1, Hellerup, Kobenhavn
World Radio Handler	Kobenhavn

Finland

Oy. Yleisradio Ab.
Unioninkatu 16, Helsinki K

Projected Programmes

Skoleradio

Kouluradio

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Radio Bladet	Mannerheimwägen 18, Helsinki
Radio-Kuuntelija	Hietalahdenranta 13, Helsinki

France

Radiodiffusion-Télévision-Française
107, rue de Grenelle, Paris 7e

Avant-programmes RTF et Programmes définitifs	26, rue Beaujon, Paris 8e

Cahiers d'Etudes de Radio-Télévision	Centre d'Etudes Radiophoniques, 37, rue de l'Université, Paris 7e
Documentation technique—Signalements-Sommaires	Service Etudes, Recherches et Documentation technique, 15, rue Cognacq-Jay, Paris 7e
Informations	
Radio Informations Documentation	

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Acta Electronica	M. P. Marchet, Directeur Gérant, 23, rue du Retrait, Paris 20e
Almanach Magazine de Radio-Tele-Luxembourg	22 rue Bayard, Paris 8e
Annales de la Propriété industrielle, artistique et littéraire	6, rue de Mézières, Paris 6e
Annales de Radioélectricité	Compagnie Générale de TSF, 79, Bd Haussmann, Paris 8e
Annales des Télécommunications	76, rue du Général Leclerc, Issy-les-Moulineaux (Seine)
Bulletin de Documentation du Ministère de la Défense Nationale	Services Recherches et Informations techniques, Fort d'Issy, Issy-les-Moulineaux (Seine)
Bulletin d'Information	Centre National de la Cinématographie française, 12, rue de Lubeck, Paris 16e
Bulletin d'Information du Bureau ionosphérique francais (PTT)	196, rue de Paris, Bagneux (Seine)
Bulletin "Propagation" du Ministère de la Défense Nationale	Fort d'Issy, Issy-les-Moulineaux (Seine)
Bulletin signalétique des Télécommunications	76, rue du Général Leclerc, Issy-les-Moulineaux (Seine)
Bulletin de la Société francaise des électriciens	8-14 Av. Pierre Larouse, Malakoff (Seine)
Câbles et Transmission	SOTELEC, 16 rue de la Baume, Paris 8e
Les Cahiers de l'Auditeur et du Téléspectateur	4, rue du Pont Louis-Philippe, Paris 4e
Les Cahiers français, et Tables Mensuelles	16, rue Lord Byron, Paris 8e
Chronique de la Société des Gens de Lettres de France	Hôtel de Massa, 38, Faubourg St. Jacques, Paris 14e
Le Commerce Radio Electro-Domestique	18 bis Villa Herran, Paris 16e

Communiqués d'Information du CNET	76, rue du Général Leclerc, Issy-les-Moulineaux (Seine)
Electronique	Editions LEPS, 21, rue des Jeûneurs, Paris 2e
Electronique industrielle	42, rue Jacob, Paris 6e
Etat-major de l'Armée: 1ère partie: Presse d'Information (extraits) 2ème partie: Revues spécialisées (analyses)	231, Bd. St. Germain, Paris 7e
Europe Informations (Europe No. 1)	28, rue Francois 1er, Paris 8e
Gazette du Palais	3, Bd. du Palais, Paris 4e
Le Haut-Parleur	25, rue Louis-le-Grand, Paris 2e
Image et Son	UFOLEIS, 3, rue Recaimer, Paris 7e
Journal de l'Equipement Electronique	Service Rédaction 174, Quai de Jemappes, Paris 10e
Cinéma TV Promotion	47, rue Blanche, Paris 9e
Le Miroir de l'information de la publicité et des relations publiques	37, rue du Louvre, Paris 2e
Le Moniteur Professionnel de l'Electricité	18 bis Villa Herran, Paris 16e
Musique et Radio	39, rue du Général Foy, Paris 8e
L'Onde Electrique	Sociétés des Radioélectriciens, 10, Av. P. Larousse, Malakoff (Seine)
Radio-Electronique Professionnelle	18 bis Villa Herran, Paris 16e
Radio Télévision Française	Editions LEPS, 21, rue des Jeûneurs, Paris 2e
Recueils Dalloz et Sirey	Jurisprudence Générals Dalloz S.A., 11, rue Soufflot, Paris 5e
Revue internationale du Droit d'Auteur	28, rue Ballu, Paris 9e
Revue des P.T.T. de France	Administration française des P.T.T., 20, Av. de Ségur, Paris 7e
Revue technique de la Cie française Thomson-Houston	4, rue du Fossé-Blanc, Gennevilliers (Seine)
Revue du Son	Editions Chiron, 40, rue de Seine, Paris 6e
La Semaine Radio Télé	142, rue Montmarte, Paris 2e
Société des Ingénieurs civils Bulletin-Mémoires	19, rue Blanche, Paris 9e

SORAFOM—Informations diverses	46, rue d'Amsterdam, Paris 9e
7 Jours—Télé 61	SOFIRAD, 51, rue Pierre Charron, Paris 8e
Télé-Revue, La Semaine télévisée	UFOLEIS, 3, rue Récamier, Paris 7e
Télévision	Sté des Editions Radio, 42, rue Jacob, Paris 6e
Télévision Programme Magazine	21, rue des Jeûneurs, Paris 2e
Télonde—Centre de Documentation de la Cie Générale de TSF	10, rue Carducci, Paris 19e
Toute la Radio	42, rue Jacob, Paris 6e

Germany

Arbeitsgemeinschaft der öffentlichrechtlichen Rundfunkanstalten der Bundesrepublik Deutschland (A.R.D.)
Bonn
(Associated state broadcasting systems are listed in the right-hand column below)

Deutsches Fernsehen (Wochenprogramm)	
Deutsches Fernsehen, Hinweise auf das Gemeinschaftsprogramm der Woche	
Wochenprogramm	Bayerischer Rundfunk, Rundfunkplatz 1, München 2
Schulfunk	Same as above
Aus dem Programm	Hessischer Rundfunk, Bertramstrasse 8, Frankfurt-am-Main
Programm und Pressedienst	Same as above
Fernsehprogramm-Informationen	Same as above
Schulfunk	Same as above
Wochenprogramm	Norddeutscher Rundfunk, Rothenbaumchausee 132, Hamburg 13
Schulfunk	Same as above
Aus dem Programm	Radio Bremen, Heinrich-Hertz-Strasse 13, Bremen
Informationsdienst	Same as above
Programm der Woche	Same as above
Radio Bremen Sendet	Same as above
Schulfunk	Same as above
Programm der Woche	Saarländischer Rundfunk, Martin-Luther-Strasse 12, Saarbrücken 3

I. und II. Programm	Sender Freies Berlin, Masurenallee 8-14, Berlin-Charlottenburg
Die Vorschau	Same as above
Aus dem Programm	Süddeutscher Rundfunk, Neckarstrasse 145, Stuttgart
Südfunk-Kurier	Same as above
Wochenprogramm	Same as above
Schulfunk	Same as above
Aus dem Programm	Südwestfunk, Hans-Bredow-Strasse, Baden-Baden
Pressedienst	Same as above
Wochenprogramm	Same as above
Schulfunk	Same as above
Technische Blätter	Same as above
Wochenprogramm	Westdeutscher Rundfunk, Wallrafplatz 5, Köln
Schulfunk	Same as above

Staatlicher Rundfunkkomitee der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik Nalepastrasse 18/50, Berlin-Oberschöneweide

Funk und Fernsehen der D.D.R.	
Vorschau auf das Programm der Woche	

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Aktueller Fernsehdienst	Mainzer Landstrasse 240 e, Frankfurt/Main
Allgemeine Deutsche Lehrer-Korrespondenz	Holzhausenstrasse 62, Frankfurt/Main
Archiv der Elecktr. Uebertragung	Geschäftsführende Redaktion, Machstrasse 4, Karlsruhe-Durlach (17a)
Archiv für Post u. Fernmeldewesen	Koblenzer Strasse 81, Bonn
Archiv für Urheber-Film -Funk- und Theaterrecht (UFITA)	Dr. jur. Georg Roeber, Amalienstr. 10, München 2
Bulletin	Office de Presse et d'Information du Gouvt. Fédéral, Welckerstrasse 11, Bonn
Elektronische Rundschau	Verlag für Radio-Foto-Kinetechnik GmbH, Eichborndamm 141-167, Berlin-Borsigwalde

Entwicklungsberichte der Siemens & Halske A.G.	Siemens & Halske A. G., Zentral Fachbücherei, Hofmannstrasse 51, München 25
ETZ—A	VDE—Schnellberichte Schriftleitung, Bismarckstrasse 33, Berlin-Charlottenburg 2
Fernseh-Informationen	Frauenschuhstrasse 3, München 54
Fernseh-Rundschau	Verlag G. Schenck GmbH, Heimhuder Strasse 53, Hamburg 13
fff-Press (Archiv-Dienst, Biographische Notizen, Die Schule, Fernseh-Film, Presse-Schau, Schallplattenmarkt, Werbung in Funk und Fernsehen, Wirtschaft und Technik, Auf dem Lande)	Heimhuder Strasse 21, Hamburg 13
Film und Recht	Institut für Filmrecht, Bismarckstrasse 18, Stuttgart-Sonnenberg
Frequenz	Fachverlag Schiele & Schön, Boppstrasse 10, Berlin S.W. 29
Funk-Fachhändler Funk-Fachhändler kurz gefunkt	Radio Verlag, Schlüterstrasse 44, Hamburg 13
Funk-Korrespondenz	Katholisches Rundfunk Institut, Helenenstrasse 5-7, Köln
Funk-Technik	Eichborndamm 141-167, Berlin-Borsigwalde
Das Gesamte Recht der Presse, des Buchhandels, des Rundfunks und des Fernsehens	Hermann Luchterhand Verlag, Berlin-Frohnau und Neuwied, a. Rh.
GEMA Nachrichten	Seesener Strasse 1-3, Berlin-Grünewald
Gewerblicher Rechtsschutz und Urheberrecht, avec Auslands- und Internationaler Teil	Verlag Chemie GmbH, Bergstrasse, Weinheim
Hochfrequenz-technik und Elektroakustik	Akademische Verlags—gessellschaft Geest & Portig K.-G., Leipzig
Hör Zu	Kaiser Wilhelmstrasse 6, Hamburg 36
Hören und Sehen	Burchardstrasse 11, Hamburg 1
Internationales Handbuch für Rundfunk und Fernsehen	Hans Bredow Institute, Universität Hamburg

Jahrbuch für Internationales Recht	Institut für Internationales Recht an der Universität Kiel, Dänishstrasse 15, Kiel
Kirche und Fernsehen Kirche und Rundfunk	Evangelisches Pressehaus, Bethel b. Bielefeld
N.T.Z.	F. Vieweg u. Sohn, Verlagbuchhandlung, Braunschweig
Pressedienst	RIAS, Kufsteinerstrasse 69, Berlin-Schöneberg
Presse Mitteilungen	Bundesministerium für das Post— und Fernmeldewesen, Koblenzerstrasse 81, Bonn
Program Schedule	American Forces Network, APO 757, U.S. Army
Publizistik	Verlag B. C. Heye & Co., Bremen
Radio Mentor	Hubertus Bader Strasse 16, Berlin-Grunewald
Rapports FTZ	Fernmeldetechnisches, Zentralamt V.F., Rheinstrasse 110, Darmstadt
Rhode & Schwartz Mitteilungen	Rhode & Schwartz, Tassiloplatz 7, München 9
Rundfunktechnische Mitteilungen	Dr. E. Schwartz, Harvestehuder weg. 7, Hamburg 13
Rundfunk und Fernsehen	Hans Bredow Institut, Universität Hamburg
SEL-Nachrichten	Standard Elektrik, Lorenz A. G., Fachbücherei, Hellmuth-Hirth-Strasse 42, Stuttgart-Zuffenhausen
Schulfunk	RIAS, Kufsteinerstrasse 69, Berlin-Schöneberg
Siemens Zeitschrift	Siemens & Halske, Aktiengesellchaft Siemens-Schuckertwerke, Aktieng, Berlin-München-Erlangen
Telefunken Zeitung	32-34, Telefunken, Mehringdamm, Berlin S.W. 61
Wissenschaftliche Zeitschrift der Hochschule für Elektrotechnik	Illmenau 3

Greece

Institut National de Radiodiffusion
14, rue Mourousi, Athènes

Programmes	

Hungary

Kep es Hangtechnika	Budapest
Magyar Hiradastechnika	Budapest
Magyar Radio es Televizio	Budapest
Radiotechnika	Magyar Szabadsagharcos Szovetseg, Budapest
Revue Hongroise	Vaci Utca 12, Budapest

Ireland

Radio Eireann
General Post Office, Dublin

Programme of the Week

Publicity Bulletin

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Radio and Television Review	34, Grafton Street, Dublin

Italy

Radiotelevisione Italiana
Via del Babuino 9, Roma

Documentazioni estere sulla Radio e la Televisione	
Elettronica	Via Arsenale 21, Torino
Ici la Radio-télévision qui vous parle de Rome *(E.F.)*	
Radiocorriere-TV	Via Arsenale 21, Torino
Radio e TV—Notiziario Settimanale	
La Radio per le Scuole	Via Arsenale 21, Torino
Rassegna settimanale della Stampa Radio e TV Estera	
Schemi dei Programmi	
Terzo Programma	Via Arsenale 21, Torino

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Alta Frequenza	Corso Massimo d'Azeglio 42, Torino
L'Antenna	Via Senato 24, Milano
Bollettino dell'Ufficio della Proprieta Letteraria, artistica e scientifica	Piazza del uirinale 41, Roma
Cinema e Scienza—Televisione	Instituto di Fisiologia Generale, Universita di Roma, Roma

Cronache del Cinema e della Televisione	Corso Rinascimento 113, Roma
Il Diritto di Autore	Via Gianturco 2, Roma
Mondo	M. G. Sotis, Président du Comité International pour le Cinéma et la Télévision, Via Nemorense 77, Roma
Poste e Telecommunicazioni	Via della Vite 107, Roma
Radio e Televisione	Via dei Pellegrini 8/4, Milano 245
Radio Industria e Televisione	Viale Filippetti 3, Milano 243
Rassegna di Diritto Cinematografico teatrale e della Radiotelevisione	Via Ennio Quirino, Visconti 99, Roma
Rassegna Tecnica Mensile	Via della Vite 107, Roma
Rescenzioni e Notizie	Instituto Superiore P. e T., Viale Trastevere 189, Roma
Revista Tecnica di Cinematografia, Ellectroacoustica, Televisione	Via Carlo Tenca 33, Milano
La Ricerca Scientifica	Piazzale delle Scienze 7, Roma
Lo Spettacolo	Via Gianturco 2, Roma

Luxembourg

Compagnie Luxembourgeoise de Telediffusion
Villa Louvigny, Luxembourg

Programmes de la semaine

Tele-Luxembourg Programmes

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Almanach Magazine de Radio-Tele-Luxembourg	See France

Monaco

Radio Monte-Carlo
16, Bd Princesse-Charlotte, Monte-Carlo

Les Echos de Radio Monte-Carlo

Programmes de la semaine—Avant Programmes

Netherlands

Nederlandse Radio Unie (N.R.U.)
's Gravelandseweg 55, Hilversum
(Associated broadcasting organizations are listed in the right-hand column below)

News Bulletin

OTM Omroep Technische Mededelingen	Bureau Hoofd Technische Dienst, Postbus 150, Hilversum

Schoolradio	
Avrobode	A.V.R.O., Keizersgracht 107, Amsterdam C
Katholieke Radio en Televisiegids	K.R.O., Keizersgracht 151, Amsterdam C
KRO Nieuws	KRO Persdienst, Emmastraat 52, Hilversum
Schoolradio	Keizersgracht 151, Amsterdam C
Omroepgids	N.C.R.V., Schuttersweg 8, Postbus 121, Hilversum
Schoolradio	Schuttersweg 8, Hilversum
Radio TV Gids	V.A.R.A., Heuvellaan 33-35, Hilversum
Vrije Geluiden	V.P.R.O., Postbus 11, Hilversum
Wereldprogramma	Radio Nederland Wereldomroep, Postbus 137, Hilversum

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Gazette, Revue internationale de Science de la Presse	Keizersgracht 604, Amsterdam C
Het P.T.T. Bedrijf	Direction Générale des P.T.T., Kortenaerkade 12, 's-Gravenhage
Het Onafhankelijk Weekblad voor Kijkers en Luisteraars	Hilversum
Revue technique Philips	N.V. Philips Gloeilampen-fabrieken, Eindhoven
Televizier	Postbus 2, Leiden

Norway

Norsk Rikskringkasting
Björnstjerne Björnsons, Plass 1, Oslo

Program Bladet

Programme of the Week

Skolekringkastinga

Periodicals of Other Organizations

ETT (Elektroteknisk Tidsskrift)	Norske Elektrisitetsverkers Forening, Rosenborggt 19, Oslo
Radio Nytt	Oslo
Telektronikk	Kungsgatan 21, Oslo

Poland

Biuletyn Telewizyjny	Warsaw
Radio i Swiat	Warsaw
Radio i Telewizja	Polskie Radio, Warsaw
Wiadomosci Elecktrotechnicze	Czackiego 3-5, Warsaw

Portugal

Emissora Nacional de Radiodifusoa
2, rua do Quelhas, Lisboa

Aqui Lisboa

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Electricidade	Rua Doña Estefania 48, 3°, Esq°., Lisboa 1
Faits et Documents	Secretariado Nacional da Informacao, Lisboa
Radio e Televisao	5, Rua Dr. Luiz de Almeida e Albuquerque, Lisboa
Revista Portuguesa de Communicacoes	Lisboa

Rumania

Programul de Radio	Bucharest

Spain

Electronica	Apartado 5252, Barcelona
Informacion Social	Asociacion Nacional Cooperativa de Constructores de Aparatos de Radio y Anexos, Avenida de José Antonio 579, Barcelona
Informacion Tecnica y Economica	
Ondas	M. Manuel Tarin Iglesias, Sociedad Española de Radiodifusion, Caspe 6, Barcelona

Sweden

Sveriges Radio
8, Kungsgatan, Stockholm 7

Roster i Radio-TV

Skolradio

Sweden calling DXERS-DK Bulletin

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Ericsson Review	Telefonaktiebolaget, L. M. Ericson, Stockholm 32

Radio och Television	Stockholms Radioklubb, Stockholm
Svenska Dabladet	Stockholm
Tele	Kungl. Telegrafstyrelsen, Stockholm
Transactions	Library of Chalmers, University of Technology, Göteborg

Switzerland

Societe Suisse de Rediodiffusion
Neuengasse Passage 2, Bern

Ici la Suisse	23, Neuengasse, Bern
La Radio à l'Ecole	66, Bd Carl-Vogt, Genève
Radio + Fernsehen	21, Schwarztorstrasse, Bern
Radio Je Vois tout	2, Avenue de Tivoli, Lausanne
Radioscuola della Svizzera Italiana	Lugano
Radiotivù	Grassi & Co., Lugano
Répertoire des Radiodrames	30, Neuengasse, Bern
Schweizer Schulfunk	Bern
TV Information	4, rue Constantin, Genève

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Acoustica, Journal international d'acoustique *(F.G. and Italian)*	S. Hirzel, 6, Gotthardstrasse, Zurich
Bulletin de l'Association suisse des Electriciens	301, Seefeldstrasse, Zurich 8
Hasler Mitteilungen	Hasler A.G., Bern
PTT Technische Mitteilungen (Bulletin technique des PTT)	Bern
Radio Organisation	Postfach 188, Basel 2
Radio TV Service	Union suisse des Radio-Electriciens, 60, Viaduktstrasse, Basel
Revue Brown-Boveri	S.A. Brown-Boveri et Cie, Baden
Revue suisse de la Propriété industrielle et du Droit d'Auteur	Polygraphischer Verlag A. G., 4, Limmatquai, Zurich
Schweitzer Radio-Zeitung	Ringier & Co., A. G., Zolfiingue
Société suisse des Auteurs et Editeurs: publications diverses	Postfach Enge, 38, Alpenquai, Zurich 27
La Vie Economique	Dép. Féd. de l'Economie publique, 8, Bundesgasse, Bern

Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

Akusticheskii Zhurnal	Moscow
Elektrosviaz'	Moscow
Nauchnye Doklady Vysshei Shkoly: Radiotetkhnika i Elektronika	Ministersvo Vyshego Obrazovaniia
Radio *(R.)*	DOSAAF, Novo-Ryazanskaya 26, Moscow, B-66
Radiotekhnika	Moscow
Radio Programmy	Sovet Ministrov SSR, Gosudar Stvennyi Komitet po Radiovesch-Chaniyu i Televideniya, M. Putinkoski Per 2, Moscow
Tekhnika Kino i Televidennia	Ministersvo Kultury SSR, Moscow
Tekhnika Televideniia	Ministersvo Radioteknicheskoi Promyshlennosti SSR, Moscow
Television and VHF Programs *(R.)*	Moscow
Vestnik Svyazi: Proizvodstvenno Tekhnicheski Zhurnal	Ministersvo Proizvodstvenno Syvazi SSR, Svyaz'idat, Chistoprudnyi Bulvar 2, Moscow

United Kingdom

British Broadcasting Corporation
Broadcasting House, Portland Place, London W. 1

Ariel	
B.B.C. European Service	
B.B.C. Handbook	
B.B.C. Music News	
B.B.C. Press Service *(E.F.)*	
B.B.C. Record	
Broadcast to Schools	
Engineering Monographs	
Engineering Press Statements	
Hier Spricht London	35, Marylebone High Street, London W. 1
The Listener	Same as above
London Calling—World Edition	Same as above
London Calling Europe	Same as above
Radio Times	Same as above
Reception Notes	Same as above

Report on Radio Propagation	
Sound Broadcasting News	12, Cavendish Place, London W. 1
Television News	Same as above
Third Programme	

Independent Television Authority and
Independent Television Companies Association Ltd.
14, Princes Gate, London S.W. 1

Anglia Television	Anglia House, Norwich
ABC press Information	Pathé House, 133 Oxford Street, London W. 1
ATV News	Television House, Kingsway, London W.C. 2
Fusion	Same as above
Newscast	Scottish Television Ltd., Theatre Royal, Glasgow
News from Associated Rediffusion	Television House, Kingsway, London W.C. 2
News Release	Tyne Tees Television, The Television Centre, Newcastle upon Tyne, 1
Press Notices	14, Princes Gate, London S.W. 1
TV Times	TV Publications Ltd., Television House, Kingsway, London W.C. 2

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Aerial	Marconi House, Chelmsford, Essex
Audio-Visual Selling	180 Fleet Street, London E.C. 4
The Author	Society of Authors, 84, Drayton Gardens, London S.W. 10
British Communications and Electronics	Ed. Heywood & Co. Ltd., Drury House, Russell Street, Drury Lane, London W.C. 2
Documentation	Secretary General, CIRM, Shipping Federation House, (5th Floor), 146-150 Minories, London E.C. 3
Electrical Review	Dorset House, Stamford Street, London S.E.1
Electronic Engineering	28, Essex Street, Strand, London W.C. 2
Electronic Technology	Iliffe & Sons, Dorset House, Stamford Street, London S.E. 1

International TV Technical Review	408 Strand, London W.C. 2
Journal of the British Institution of Radio Engineers	9, Bedford Square, London W.C. 1
Journal of the Television Society	The Television Society, Head Office, 166, Shaftesbury Avenue, London W.C. 2
Marconi Instrumentation	Marconi's Wireless Telegraph Co. Ltd., Chelmsford, Essex
Marconi News	Same as above
Marconi Review	Same as above
Mullard Review	Same as above
Mullard Technical Communications	Mullard House, Torrington Place, London W.C. 1
Performing Right Bulletin	Copyright House, 33, Margaret Street, London W. 1
The Pianomaker	13, St. George Street, Hanover Square, London W. 1
The Post Office Electrical Engineers' Journal	G.P.O., Alder House, London E.C. 1
Proceedings of the Institution of Electrical Engineers	Institution of Electrical Engineers, Savoy Place, London W.C. 2
Radio Research Station: technical publications	Ditton Park, Slough, Bucks
Revue de la Société English Electric	The English Electric Company, Ltd., Stafford
Sound and Vision Broadcasting	Broadcasting Division, Marconi's Wireless Telegraph Co., Ltd., Chelmsford, Essex
Wireless and Electrical Trader	Iliffe & Sons, Dorset House, Stamford Street, London S.E. 1
Wireless World	Same as above

Yugoslavia

Yugoslav Broadcasting
Knez Mihajlova 19/III, Post fah 284, Beograd

Radio Zagreb Programmes	Zagreb

Periodicals of Other Organizations

Electrotehnicar: Casopis za Electro-Radio, TV i Kino-Tehniku	Technicka Knjiga, Jurisiceva 10, Zagreb
Elektrotehniski Vestnik	P.O.B. 68, Ljubljana
Jugoslavenski Radio	Jurisiceva Ulica 4, Zagreb

OCEANIA

Australia

Australian Broadcasting Commission
264 Pitt Street, Sydney

Broadcasting and Television	Box 2608, G.P.O., Sydney
Radio Australia	G.P.O. Box 780 H, Melbourne
TV Times	Sydney
Broadcasts to Schools	

Periodicals of Other Organizations

TV Week	33 York Street, Sydney

New Zealand

New Zealand Broadcasting Service
Head Office, Government Life Insurance Building, Wellington C. 1

New Zealand Listener	P.O. Box 6098, Wellington C. 1
Broadcasts to Schools	

Footnotes

[1]Union Européenne de Radiodiffusion, *Liste des Publications Periodiques Reçues par les Services Permanents de l'U.E.R., No. 35 Série A., Bilingue, 1960* (Geneva: European Broadcasting Union, 1960); *ibid., No. 36 Série, Ad., Bilingue, 1961* (Geneva: European Broadcasting Union, 1961).

[2]Library of Congress, Library of the Pan American Union, New York City Public Library, University of Southern California Libraries.

[3]N. W. Ayer and Son, Inc., *N. W. Ayer and Son's Directory of Newspapers and Periodicals 1961* (Philadelphia: N. W. Ayer and Son, Inc., 1961); Eileen C. Graves (ed.), *Ulrich's Periodicals Directory* (9th ed.; New York: R. R. Bowker Company, 1959); Margarita Mendoza Lopez (ed.), *Catalogo de Publicaciones Periodicas Mexicanas* (Mexico, D.F.: n.p., 1959); Pan American Union, *Guide to Latin American Periodicals* (Washington, D.C.: Pan American Union, Department of Cultural Affairs, 1957); Benn Brothers, Ltd., *The Newspaper and Press Directory and Advertisers' Guide* (109th ed.; London: Benn Brothers Limited, 1960); Maurice Roux-Bluysen (ed.), *Annuaire de la Presse Française et Etrangers* (73rd ed., Paris: n.p., 1960); Willing's Press Service, Ltd., *Willing's Press Guide 1959* (85th ed.; London: Willing's Press Service, Ltd., 1959).

Books in Review

BROADCASTING AND GOVERNMENT: RESPONSIBILITIES AND REGULATIONS. By Walter B. Emery. East Lansing: Michigan State University Press, 1961. 482 pp. $7.50.

The "responsibilities" mentioned in the subtitle of this unique volume should lead to its presence in every station's library. In no other field of mass communication is there such necessity for the regulated to have specialized knowledge of the roles of the government with respect to his enterprise. *Broadcasting and Government* supplies that specialized knowledge.

Although Dr. Emery cautions against the use of his book as a substitute for up-to-date copies of the *Communications Act of 1934*, the FCC *Rules and Regulations*, the *Federal Register* or Pike and Fischer's *Radio Regulation*, his use of plain language and a common sense approach make it of great value to the broadcaster or student who doesn't want to obtain a legal education in order to find out what he can and can't do in broadcasting.

In no other book do we find such a clear explanation of the letter *and* principle of FCC regulations and practices, with current rulings placed in proper relationship to their historical development. Thorough documentation, citations placed at the foot of each chapter, and an index make it a remarkably easy book to use. Of particular value to the reader looking for a quick-and-ready guidebook to Federal regulation of broadcasting are chapters on the FCC's interest in program standards; on changes in ownership and control of stations; on pitfalls awaiting the careless or unknowledgable broadcaster; on copyright and other legal restrictions on the broadcast use of program materials (much of this chapter appeared previously in Vol. IV, No. 3 of the JOURNAL OF BROADCASTING).

However, long after changes in specific laws and regulations have made the chapters mentioned in the preceeding paragraph of little practical use, this book will still have many chapters of value. For here, succinctly stated, is possibly the best available exposition of the history, basis and scope of governmental control of broadcasting. For the student, teacher, historian or broadcaster who needs to know about the regulation of radio, this book is invaluable.

Broadcasting and Government is divided into six major parts, although its central focus remains the Federal Communications Commission. The first part, only 26 pages long, outlines the technological, economic and social factors that led to the creation of the American system of broadcasting. The second part defines and describes the FCC and its statutory powers. The third discusses what Commissioner Ford once characterized as the most important problem facing the Commission: the character, classification and utilization of radio frequencies, including AM, FM, TV, international, auxiliary and experimental broadcasting. The fourth section is a complete guidebook for getting a station on the air that is easily worth the price of the book to the prospective broadcaster. It includes material on qualifications, competitive hearings, applications procedural steps and technical operations—all in less than 50 pages! The fifth part outlines the responsibilities and hard realities of the broadcaster's lot: the technical requirements for broadcast station operation, FCC rules, copyright, station ownership and transfer, program responsibilities and guidelines, etc. The final section of Dr. Emery's book offers an extremely interesting discussion en

titled "A look to the future" that covers barriers to effective broadcast legislation and proposals for legislative action.

The preceeding sections occupy not quite two-thirds of the volume. The remaining 169 pages are given over to some ten appendices, including the text of the Communications Act, the NAB radio and TV Codes, a narrative chronology of FCC leadership and activities over the past three decades, the FCC Report and Statement of Policy on programming of July 29, 1960, an FTC form letter, an excellent bibliography, etc. The inclusion of useful reference material within the volume is often a valuable practice, but in these days of high printing costs one cannot help but wish that easily obtained and often revised material (such as the Communications Act and the NAB Codes) were omitted, together with materials currently in flux (such as uniform definitions of program categories and addresses of FCC Field Offices). Such omissions would reduce the size of the book by some 85 pages, causing either a reduction in price or an opportunity to further discuss the meaning of certain regulations and responsibilities.

The quality and scope of the book reflects the outstanding background of its author. Walter Emery has been a program producer, a station manager, a teacher, an FCC staff member for more than a decade (as attorney, examiner, Chief of the Renewals and Revocation Section, and Legal Assistant to former Commissioner and Chairman Paul A. Walker), and general consultant to the Joint Council on Educational Television. He is a lawyer and the author of many articles in both scholarly journals and the trade press. He manages to be Editor of the *NAEB Journal* and Editor of the "Law of Broadcasting" Department of the JOURNAL OF BROADCASTING at the same time. Dr. Emery is currently Professor in the Department of Television, Radio and Film in the Michigan State University College of Communication Arts.

Despite the superfluity of some of its appendices, and despite evidences of the length of time over which this volume was compiled (references to the "NARTB" Codes, for instance), *Broadcasting and Government* should be of great value to all who read it. That this number should include all those engaged in the teaching and study of professional broadcasting goes without question. To the academician it will prove to be *the* reference for many years; and it should also fill a dangerous gap in the bookcase of every member of broadcast management.

John M. Kittross
University of Southern California

THE TELEVISION BUSINESS: ACCOUNTING PROBLEMS OF A GROWTH INDUSTRY. By Warde B. Ogden. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1961. 197 pp. $6.00.

In a field such as broadcasting, where books of specialized character are lacking, every new contribution finds ready acceptance. On the strength of its title alone, *The Television Business* should, therefore, meet with moderate success.

However, it is not a textbook, nor will it prove of any great value to teachers or students of broadcasting. In a sense, the very title is somewhat misleading since Mr. Ogden deliberately limited his subject to television film programs on the grounds that film has created accounting problems "of far greater complexity than those so far encountered with live programs." Written primarily from the point of view of the film producer, *The Television Business* deals in concise,

readable style with the organization of film companies, the process of syndication and sale of film programs, and how in each process revenue and the cost items are handled for accounting purposes. To this end, the book has much to commend it for anyone desiring a better understanding of the economics of film production and its interrelationship to other units in the broadcasting industry. In fact, the author presents one of the finest and most thorough descriptions of the process of film syndication and its many ramifications that this reviewer has thus far encountered.

It does seem unfortunate, however, that more attention is not given to the problems of film buying on the part of the television station, and to the complicated bookkeeping necessary to maintain running inventories of station film properties. A single chapter is devoted to "Station Accounting"—a mere twenty pages. One additional chapter provides an excellent analysis of the mysteries of "Barter Transactions" and how they operate with respect to both syndicator and station. The final twenty-six pages are devoted to a standard glossary of television terms, most of which are to be found in the usual production textbook. Only a limited few pertain to television film or accountancy.

Author Ogden has taken a difficult area and made it understandable to the layman, without destroying its usefulness for the accountant. The clarity of exposition, as well as the unique character of the contents of the book, more than compensates for its limited scope and the stress placed upon accounting problems alone. Despite limitations, *The Television Business* should prove a valuable addition to station or college libraries.

Robert E. Summers
University of Texas

EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION GUIDEBOOK. By Philip L. Lewis. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961. 220 pp. $6.75.

This is an extraordinary book, which took two years of exhaustive research to make. It presents the complete story of educational television from the standpoint of the *users* of equipment In fact, the sub title is "technical aspects of broadcasting and closed-circuit systems in a rapidly expanding field." In addition to specific material in the book, we have the viewpoint of a first-rate educator in judging the practical uses of present-day equipment capable of delivering the TV message.

Dr. Lewis, who is Director of Instructional Materials for the Chicago Public Schools, has had long experience with equipment. He was a pioneer in closed-circuit uses of educational television at the Chicago Teacher College and continued these experiments in the schools of Chicago before assuming his present duties. He has visited all the noteworthy centers of educational television in this country and draws on a wide observation of the uses of TV in education and the equipment necessary to get satisfactory results.

The book is particularly valuable for its complete analysis of school needs and operating requirements. The only item lacking in this respect is a table of costs, which evidently could not be included in light of shifting conditions. While some costs may rise, it is also evident that many costs will be reduced, after initial production outlays have been absorbed, so that prices will be affected downward. Individual firms will, of course, provide these prices to anyone entering the field as a purchaser.

One of the most valuable assets in the book are the eight case-studies, which give the reader the benefit of not "go thou and do likewise" but definitely "don't make our mistakes but copy our successes."

Surely, this is one of the best organized studies yet made in the field of educational television; not only for the neophyte entering the field but for the experienced, who will want still to learn from one another. The book is arranged into six parts; for example Part B is entitled "Personnel and Programming." Each part consists of two chapters. Part V includes Chapter X and XI, "Building a Staff" and "Guidelines for Programming." This is a rewarding book to read, a necessary book to own and will, no doubt, become the text of many a "general" course in educational television.

Franklin Dunham
U. S. Office of Education

Future Increase in Subscription Rates

Reluctantly, because of steady and substantial increases in printing and other costs, it will be necessary to raise the subscription rates of the JOURNAL OF BROADCASTING, effective January 1, 1962. This increase will enable the JOURNAL to meet production expenses for the most part, although the publication will continue to incur a substantial deficit each year. The increase was voted by the APBE Board of Directors in May.

Orders received for Volume VI (1962) before January 1, 1962, will be honored at the lower rates now in effect. After January 1, 1962, the following rates will apply:

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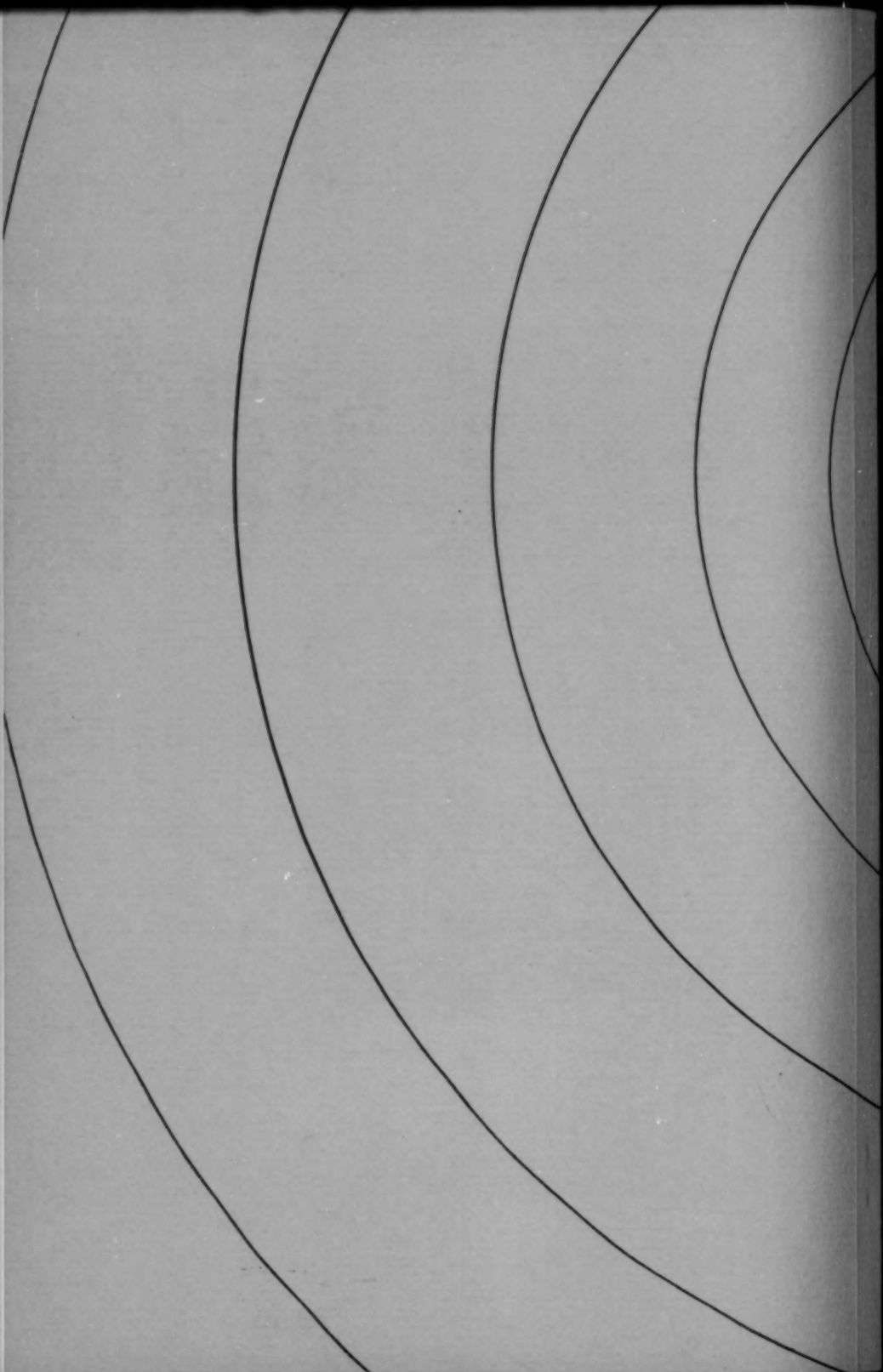
PURPOSE OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR PROFESSIONAL BROADCASTING EDUCATION

The purpose of this organization is to secure mutual advantages that flow from a continuing relationship between broadcasters and institutions of higher learning which offer a high standard of training and guidance for those who plan to enter the profession of broadcasting.

These are the fundamental objectives of the Association:

To improve the services of broadcasting.

To facilitate exchange of information on broadcasting.

To bring together to their mutual advantage those in broadcasting and those in institutions of higher learning.

To facilitate employment at maximum effectiveness for those who meet the standards of institutions of higher learning and of broadcasting.